

COGNATES IN ENGLISH AND SPANISH,
AN APPLIED, COMPARATIVE STUDY IN LEXICOGRAPHY.

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FOREWORD

First and foremost I must thank the British Council for awarding me the Scholarship which alone has made my studies possible.

I should also like to use this opportunity to acknowledge my debt to those who have been my teachers: Mr. S. P. Corder, the supervisor of my doctoral thesis; Professor D. Abercrombie and Professor A. Parker for help with phonetics and Spanish respectively; Mr. P. Van Buren and Mr. J. Dakin for general help and encouragement; and Mr. R. Mackin for discussion on the O.P.E.A.C. series.

I must also thank Miss A. Heras for ensuring that I had access to material not available in the United Kingdom, and the native informants in both languages who so patiently answered my questions.

Lastly, I would be less than grateful if I failed to mention Miss A. J. Brebner, my Scholars Officer, who has been so kind, patient and understanding.

SUMMARY

This work is an applied, comparative study in lexicography for cognate lexical items in Porteño Spanish and British English. The dictionary is intended for learners and teachers of both languages.

The thesis sustained is that for a dictionary of this type to fulfil its aims, its compilation must take into account linguistic principles based on modern linguistic theory, i.e. it must include, as well as cultural differences, all relevant information from the three components of a linguistic theory of description, viz., the phonological, the syntactic and the semantic component. But, because drastic changes in lexicography are undesirable in a dictionary with a practical aim, whose would-be-users are for the most part laymen with respect to linguistic theory, this type of lexicography is seen as a compromise between traditional lexicography and modern linguistic theory.

The work is divided into two parts: a Theoretical Part and a Practical Part, in which the linguistic principles adhered to are applied in practice to the analysis of the cognate lexical items in both languages, extracted from "lexical subsets" of the "field" of education.

Part I consists of an Introduction and eight chapters. The first chapter is devoted to the definition of the terms contained in the initial statement of this summary, and in it a preliminary definition of "cognates" as "dictionary entries in English and Spanish historically derived from the same root" is given.

In Chapter II, after an analysis of the "components" of the vocabulary of Porteño Spanish, with special reference to borrowings, and after an analysis of borrowings in English, the definition of "cognates" is enlarged to include them. Thus, cognates are "dictionary entries in English and Spanish historically derived from the same root and borrowed lexical items from English into Spanish and viceversa."

Chapter III is devoted to an investigation of which cognates (from the "complete list" as found in the vocabularies of English and Spanish) the students of English (or Spanish) will be exposed to during the process of learning a language. Thus, according to the definition of cognates given in Chapter II, two frequency lists, M. West's A General Service List of English Words and Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez's A Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words was analysed. The percentage of cognates which the lists yielded was 48% for English and 74% for Spanish. But in the course of the analysis several facts emerged about factors other than etymological cognateness, which play an important part in the recognition and understanding of cognates, the consideration of which is taken up in Chapter IV.

To prove certain of the points discussed, a series of textbooks of English as a foreign language, viz. Hornby and Mackin's Oxford Progressive English Alternative Course, Books A - D, in use in Argentina, was analysed from the point of view of cognates.

The main conclusion derived from the consideration of factors other than etymological cognateness is that similarity of graphic

substance is a crucial criterion for the definition of cognates and so the "final" definition (for the purpose of this paper), viz., "Dictionary entries in English and Spanish, similar in graphic substance, derived from the same root, and borrowed lexical items from English into Spanish or viceversa" was reached.

In Chapter V, after an introductory discussion of the relationship between theoretical and applied linguistics and lexicography, the basic principles of transformational grammar to which we adhere are outlined, and the theoretical framework for semantic analysis which has been developed by Katz and Fodor is discussed, with a view to its application in a dictionary of cognates. For reasons stated in this chapter we have deviated from the said framework in the sense of adopting conventional definitions of "readings" of lexical items instead of adhering to Katz' system of decomposing a "reading" of an item into Semantic Markers and Distinguishers, and in the sense that the systematization of cultural differences (part of what Katz calls "knowledge of the world") via Cultural Semantic Markers is considered all important in this type of lexicography. The principle of Semantic Marker is also used as a cross-reference between conventional and conceptual (or ideological) dictionaries via what we have called Conceptual Field Semantic Markers.

The information from the phonological and syntactic components which is relevant for the dictionary is discussed in Chapter VI. For this purpose, in order to be able to generalize, and due to the fact that the majority of cognates found in the research are marked with the category features noun or adjective or verb or adverb, cognates are divided into four main groups. After considering the

phonological, syntactic (and sometimes semantic) questions involved, the information from the phonological and the syntactic components which entries for each of these "word-classes" should contain, is specified.

Ways and means for extracting and specifying cultural features via the comparison of the structure of the lexical "fields" in English and Spanish, i.e., taking into account syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations between words (sense relations), are outlined in Chapter VII.

A corollary of the need for the inclusion of cultural features in readings of cognate lexical items, i.e. the necessity to break with the word-for-word translation equivalence tradition in bilingual dictionaries is also discussed.

In Chapter VIII, after a comparison of the aims of bilingual dictionaries and a dictionary of cognates, proposals for a) what the Introduction to a dictionary of cognates should contain, b) whether the dictionary ought to be monolingual or bilingual, c) format of the dictionary, d) whether the dictionary ought to be inclusive or restrictive, e) the question of head-entries, f) the inclusion of "compound-words" and "idioms", g) what an entry in the dictionary should contain, h) the ordering of "readings" of entries, and i) the inclusion of labels used in conventional lexicography, are listed.

In the introductory section of Part II, background information for the comparison of the "fields" of education in Britain and

Argentina is outlined according to relevant dimensions. From this preliminary work three lexical "subsets" emerged, and from these the list of cognates for the practical analysis was compiled.

The lexicographical procedures to be applied are discussed prior to the actual analysis of the cognates.

The general conclusions arrived at in this work are listed at the end of the Practical Part.

A bibliography of articles, books, reference books, etc. which were read and/or consulted for this work is included at this point.

Appendixes I - III, consist of the lists of cognates found in our research. Appendix IV contains Mr. Mackin's letter in reply to questions put to him about the series Oxford Progressive English Alternative Course.

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BIBLIOGRAPHY

APPENDIX I Analysis of A General Service List of English Words, M. West, Longmans, (1953).

APPENDIX II Analysis of A Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words, A. Juilland and E. Chang-Rodríguez, Mouton, The Hague, (1964).

APPENDIX III Analysis of the Series Oxford Progressive English Alternative Course, Books A - D, A.S. Hornby and R. Mackin, O.U.P., (1966).

APPENDIX IV Letter from Mr. R. Mackin.

"WELCOME, TO THE CAVES OF ARTA!"

"They are hollowed out in the sea coast at the municipal terminal of Capdepera, at nine kilometers from the town of Arta in the Island of Mallorca, with a surprising infinity of graceful columns of 21 meters and by downward, which gives the spectator of all animation and plunges in dumbness. The way going is very picturesque, serpentine between steep mountains, till the arrival at the esplanade of the valley called "The Spider". There are good enclaves of the railroad with auto-buses of excursion, many days of the week, today actually Wednesday and Saturday. Since many centuries renowned foreign visitors have explored them and wrote their eulogy about, included North-American geologists."

(From a Tourist leaflet)

Such subtle filigree and nobility of construction
Here fraternize in harmony, that respiration stops.
While all admit their impotence (though authors most formidable)
To sing in words the excellence of Nature's underpinnings,
Yet stalactite and stalagmite together with dumb language
Make hymns to God which celebrate the strength of water drops.

!You, also, are you capable to make precise in idiom
Considerations magic of illusions very wide?
Already in the Vestibule of these Grand Caves of Arta
The spirit of the human verb is darkened and stupefied;
So humbly you trespass through the forest of the columns
And listen to the grandness explicated by the guide.

From the darkness into darkness, but at measure, now descending
You remark with what exactitude he designates each bent;
"The Saloon of Thousand Banners", or "The Tomb of Napoleon",
"The grotto of the Rosary", "The Club", "The Camping Tent".
And at "Cavern of the Organ" there are knocking strange formations
Which give a noise particular provoking wonderment.

!Too far do not adventure, sir! For, further as you wander,
The every of the stalactites will make you stop and stay.
Grand peril threatens now, your nostrils apprehending
An odour least delicious of lamentable decay.
It is some poor tourists, in the depth of obscure crystal,
Which deceased of their emotion on a past excursion day.

Robert Graves.

P A R T I

INTRODUCTION

The linguistic and pedagogical problems of cognate lexical items in historically related languages are not new. In the case of English and Spanish, the problem^{of cognates} has been studied along a number of different dimensions. The study of the bibliography on the subject shows that most of it consists of articles in which lists of cognates appear. With few exceptions the authors have (a) not recognised the need to consider the question of the definition of cognateness, (b) they have assumed without discussion the relevance in language teaching of cognate lexical items in the two languages, and (c) they have made generalizations about English and/or Spanish which take little or no account of dialectal differences within both languages.

On the semantic aspect of cognates Kendrick (1943) has based her analysis on dictionary definitions which ignore the "cultural functions" of cognate lexical items within the structure of the vocabularies of the two languages.

The parallelism of the vocabularies of English and Spanish from the point of view of visual recognition has been studied by Miller and Farr (1939) and Rodríguez-Bou (1950).

From the language-teaching point of view Fries (1945) and Lado (1955; 1957; 1964) have acknowledged the importance of cognates. Some books of and on Spanish as a foreign language, Terry (1920); Ramsey/Spaulding (1956); Politzer and Staubach (1965) have also given some consideration to cognates.

Two recent books in the field of Applied Linguistics, Mackey (1965) and Stockwell^{and Martin} Bowen (1965) have devoted special sections to the matter of cognates.

From the lexicographical point of view existing studies cannot be called dictionaries in the traditional sense, as they are no

more than incomplete glossaries of "faux amis" and are notable, in general, for the absence of a systematic linguistic basis for their analysis.

A study of the bibliography on cognates shows, therefore, that there is no comprehensive study on cognates, with special reference to specific dialects of English and Spanish.

This work is an attempt to analyse the meaning of cognates from ^{two points of view,} a comparative ^{point of view} (in the sense of comparing Porteño Spanish with both Peninsular Spanish and British English) and ^{an} applied ^{point of view}, as regards (a) the application of linguistic principles based on modern linguistic theories to the analysis of the meaning of cognate lexical items, (b) ^{the} application ^{of (a)} to specific dialects of English and Spanish, and (c) the application of the foregoing to the problems of teaching.

The conclusions arrived at from the consideration of the linguistic problems involved form the basis for proposals for a dictionary of cognates. A section of such a dictionary is offered.

This work is, then, a Lexicographical Study of Cognate Lexical Items in British English and Porteño Spanish.

1. Definition of Words. In the Introduction it was stated that this work is a lexicographical study of English and Spanish. This study will be devoted to the definition of the words contained in the above statement.

1.1. Lexicology and Lexicography. Chapter (1), in the Introduction, provides a Lexicology which distinguishes between lexicology and lexicography as follows:

CHAPTER I

Chapter I states that the study of lexicology and lexicography is the study of the words, their meaning and their use. The study of lexicology and lexicography is the study of the words, their meaning and their use. The study of lexicology and lexicography is the study of the words, their meaning and their use.

- (1) Julio Casares, Introducción a la Lexicología, Colección de Investigaciones Lingüísticas, Editorial de Filología, Madrid, 1950, pp. 1-10.
- (2) See Chapter III, 1.1.

1. Definition of Terms. In the Introduction it was stated that this work is a Lexicographical Study of Cognates in British English and Porteño Spanish. This chapter will be devoted to the definition of the terms contained in the above statement.

1.1. Lexicology and Lexicography. Casares (1), in his Introducción a la Lexicología Moderna distinguishes between Lexicology and Lexicography as follows:

"... Podemos distinguir dos facultades, que tienen por objeto común, el origen, la forma y el significado de las palabras: la Lexicología, que estudia estas materias desde un punto de vista general y científico, y la Lexicografía, cuyo cometido, principalmente utilitario, se define acertadamente en nuestro léxico como el "arte de componer diccionarios."

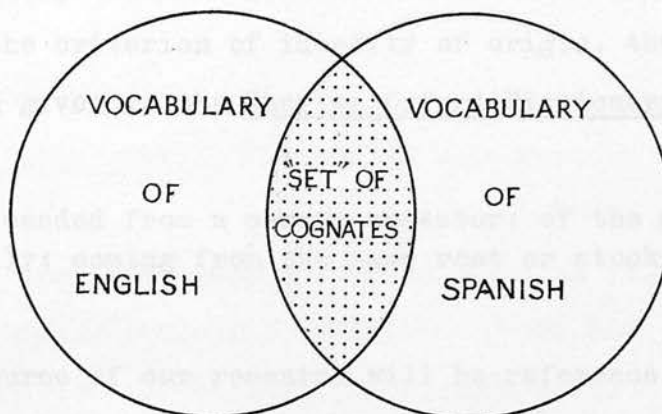
Casares thus states that the common aim of Lexicology and Lexicography is the study of "the origin, form and meaning of words." Now, Cognates in English and Spanish form a "set" of vocabulary items contained within two larger, independent, though related in origin (2) "sets".

a la lexicología Moderna

(1) Julio Casares, Introducción, Publicación del Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Revista de Filología Española, Anejo LII, Madrid (1950), p.10.

(2) See Chapter III., 3.1.

Graphically:



The overlap between the two larger "sets", which consists of the smaller "set" of Cognates, is the result of, either identity of origin, and/or identity or similarity of graphic/phonic substance (Casares' "form"), and/or congruence or partial congruence of meaning. The study of the origin (only to a certain extent as will be seen in Chapter IV), graphic substance and meaning of cognate lexical items in English and Spanish is central to this work, which is therefore, directly concerned with both Lexicology and Lexicography. And, if Lexicology is understood to mean "the study of the relationships in the vocabulary of a language or languages" (1), it follows that Lexicology is the input for Lexicography, which, as the "art of dictionary making" has as its aim the coding of all the relevant information for the analysis and comparison (2) of the items the dictionary contains.

(1) cf. Mackey, W.F., Language Teaching Analysis, Longmans (1965) p.72.

(2) Especially in bilingual and in the type of dictionary which is proposed in this thesis. See chapter V and ff.

1.2. Preliminary Definition of "Cognates." With the immediate aim of identifying the "set" of Cognates in English and Spanish, Cognates will be defined according to the criterion of identity of origin, thus following the definition given in the Shorter Oxford Dictionary, viz.

"Descended from a common ancestor; of the same family; coming from the same root or stock."

As the source of our research will be reference books, both Etymological Dictionaries and Lexicons of Spanish and English, Cognates will be taken to be:

Dictionary entries in English and Spanish derived from the same root. (1)

1.3. English. Professor Strevens, in "The Study of the Present Day English Language"(2) says:

"... the Present Day English language, in both written and spoken forms, masks a complexity that few of us appreciate until we attempt the task of describing English. This language called 'English' is not, in fact, one single, unified language. ... Large numbers of different sub-languages co-exist."

(1) This definition will be modified in Chapters II and III according to other relevant criteria.

(2) In Five Inaugural Lectures, ed. P. Strevens, O.U.P. (1966) p.107

Bearing the above in mind, we will attempt to limit our field according to the following dimensions: Aim of this study, Geographical Dialect, Temporal Dialect.

1.3.1. Aim of this Study. The aim of this work is to analyse Cognates in English and Spanish, with the purpose of providing codified information as to their meaning. The specific language-teaching situations which this study is concerned with are those of speakers of Porteño Spanish learning British English, and viceversa.

1.3.2. Geographical Dialect. A Geographical Dialect is understood to be a language "variety" related to a certain geographical area. Now, the geographical Dialect of English aimed at in most language-teaching situations in Argentina, (1) is British English. According to 1.3.1. above, the Geographical Dialect of English that will be described is British English.

It may be argued that within the Geographical Dialect of

(1) It must be pointed out here that the American Dialect of English is taught in several Educational establishments in Argentina. Cf., for instance, the variety of English taught at the American College, at the Colegio Ward, at the Instituto Cultural Argentino-norteamericano and at the pilot scheme at the Instituto Nacional Superior del Profesorado en Lenguas Vivas. It follows that the choice of British English as the variety to be described is to a certain extent arbitrary, but justified by the number of language-teaching situations in which it is taught.

British English there are Regional Dialects, i.e. varieties whose distinctive features (lexical and/or phonological and/or syntactic) characterize smaller geographical areas within the larger Geographical Dialect, and even, Local Dialects, i.e., varieties whose distinctive features characterize yet even smaller geographical areas within the Regional Dialects. (1) But for our purpose we are interested in the "core" of the British Dialect, which may be called Standard British English, understanding by this, "a codified form of language, accepted by, and serving as a model to, a larger speech community". (2)

The above applies to considerations of the three components of a linguistic theory, viz. the Phonological, the Syntactic and the Semantic Components. (3) It follows that any syntactic feature or transformation or transformational property, etc., will conform to British English syntax, and the phonological representation of the

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- (1) cf. "Hacia los Conceptos de Lengua, Dialecto y Hablas", Alvar, M., Nueva Revista de Filología Hispánica, XV (1961), pp. 51-60.
 - (2) Garvin, P.L., "The Standard Language Problem, Concepts and Methods", Anthropological Linguistics, I, (1959), pp. 28-31. We are aware, as will be discussed later, of the shortcomings of the codified version of Standard English as found in Reference books. cf. also, the Research Project by Crystal, D. now in progress.
 - (3) From this it becomes evident that the theory which will serve as a basis for the theoretical framework to be used is a Transformational-Generative model. A statement of the principles within this theory, which we will adhere to, will be discussed in Chapter V.

English cognate lexical items which will be entered in the analysis will conform to British English Pronunciation, and within this to that known as Received Pronunciation. (1)

1.3.3. Temporal Dialect. It was stated in 1.3.1. above, that the aim of this work is to analyse Cognates in English and Spanish with the purpose of providing codified information as to their meaning. It may now be specified that it is present day (2) meaning with which we are concerned. It follows that our description will be a synchronic description of Standard British English.

1.4. Standard Peninsular Spanish. The Spanish Conquest of America began in 1492. The Spaniards brought to America, amongst other things, the language of Peninsular

(1) As codified in English Pronouncing Dictionary, Jones, D., Everyman's Reference Library, Dent, London, (1963). The choice of this Reference Dictionary is based on the fact that it is the pronouncing dictionary mostly used in Argentina. See 6.1. below.

(2) "Present day" does not imply in any way that language is considered as static. The dynamics of language is hereby acknowledged. cf. Valverde, J.M., Guillermo de Humboldt y la Filosofía del Lenguaje, Gredos, Madrid, (1955), p. 34. "El lenguaje es algo en cada instante permanentemente transitorio. No es un producto (ergon) sino una potencia (energeia)." (See chapter V, 5.2., below).

Spain. (1) Hence, Central and South America, where Spanish (2)

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- (1) Peninsular Spanish is a generalization, as Spanish linguists are well aware of, for it is really a complex of Regional Dialects, cf. García de Diego, V., "Dialectismos", *Rev. de Filología Española*, III (1916), pp. 310-18; Alonso, A., "Lingüística e Historia", *Humanidades*, La Plata, XVIII (1928), pp. 30-38, and "El Descubrimiento de América y el Idioma", *Ditto*, XXX, (1944-45), pp. 117-27; Malmberg, B. "L'Espagnol dans le Nouveau Monde, Problème de Linguistique Générale", *Studia Linguistica*, I, (1947), pp. 79-116, and II (1948), pp. 1-36; García de Diego, "El Castellano como Complejo Dialectal", *Rev. de Fil. Española*, XXXIV (1950), pp. 107-24; Entwhistle, W.J., The Spanish Language, Faber, London, (1956).

The Geographical origin (within Spain) of the Conquistadores who came to America gave rise to the hypothesis as to the type of Spanish which later developed in Hispanic America, a hypothesis based on the distinctive features of the Conquistadores' Dialects (regional), cf. Henríquez Ureña, "Observaciones sobre el Español en América", (i) *Rev. de Fil. Española*, VIII, (1921) pp. 357-90; (ii) *Ditto*, XVII (1930), pp. 277-84; (iii) *Ditto*, XVIII, (1931), "Datos sobre los Españoles de la Conquista, Andalucía y el Seseo", pp. 120-48; Alonso, A., Estudios Lingüísticos, Temas Hispanoamericanos, Gredos, Madrid, (1951).

- (2) And Portuguese, see Footnote (1) on Page 8.

is spoken, became known as Hispanic America. (1). The first two geographical Dialects which evolved, after the Conquest, were Peninsular Spanish and Hispanic American Spanish. (2)

The controversy of whether in Hispanic America there is a diversity of National languages (3) or a homogeneous type of Spanish spoken throughout Central and South America has been the

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- (1) As regards the correctness of "Hispanic" versus "Latin" America, cf. Henríquez Ureña, C. "Introducción a la Biblioteca Americana, folleto, Fondo de Cultura Económica, México, (1945), p.144, footnote on page 1, in Serís, H. Bibliografía de la Lingüística Española, pub. del Inst. Caro y Cuervo, XIX, Bogotá, (1964), p. 666, "América Hispánica. Preferimos esta denominación a las de América Latina o Iberoamerica - más conocidas, pero no más exactas - para designar el conjunto de los países americanos de habla española y portuguesa, de acuerdo con el criterio de Pedro Henríquez Ureña (in Literary Currents in Hispanic America, Harvard Univ. Press, Cambridge, Mass. (1945)."; Castro, Américo, Iberoamérica, N.Y., (1946) p.63, quoted in Serís, op. cit. p.666. "Al hablar sólo de los países de lengua española, diremos hispanoamérica. La denominación latinoamericana o América Latina es inexacta; quieren fundarla en el hecho de que el español y el portugués son lenguas derivadas del latín. Pero en una importante zona de Canadá se habla Francés - idioma también latino - y sin embargo nadie piensa en el Canadá francés al decir América Latina. Este nombre es tan inoportuno como lo sería el de América Germánica aplicado a los Estados Unidos, fundándose en que el inglés es una lengua germánica."
- (2) We must call attention to the fact that we are aware of the existence of other Geographical Dialects of Spanish, ^{OUTSIDE the PENINSULA} besides the two cited above, but they do not concern us here.
- (3) i.e. not merely Geographical dialects of Spanish, but languages sufficiently different from Spanish in lexis, syntax and phonology, so as to be considered ^{separate} National languages.

source of innumerable publications. (1) The present day trend is to accept dialectal differences mainly in lexis and phonology, but also in syntax, but with an underlying "core" of Peninsular Spanish. (2) This underlying "core", or, as Kany calls it (3) "Peninsular Standard Spanish", is the 'ideal norm' "which is regarded as a unifying force and a model of common reference for all Spanish speaking persons." But, in actual fact, the 'ideal norm' is the ideal of the purists of the language, and is used by a minority of the population of Hispanic America (4), whilst the majority fall on local dialects for communication. Furthermore, this 'ideal norm' is codified in the Diccionario de la Lengua Española, (edición de la Real Academia Española) the accepted authoritative lexicon of the Spanish-speaking peoples (5), which, apart from a few and sporadic references to Hispanic American usage, entered under the name of the country or countries where it is

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- (1) See Bibliography, esp. Presente y Futuro de la Lengua Española, I and II, Actas de la Asamblea de Filología del Primer Congreso de Instituciones Hispánicas, Cultura Hispánica, Madrid, (1964).
 - (2) cf. among others, Alonso, A. "El Porvenir de Nuestra Lengua", Sur, Bs.As., N° 8 (1933), pp. 141-50; Casares, J., "El Castellano en América", in Crítica Efímera, I, (1947), pp. 259-66; Alonso, D., "Para Evitar la Diversificación de Nuestra Lengua", Arbor, LX, Madrid, (1963), pp. 7-19; "Tendencias a la Unificación Idiomática Hispanoamericana e Hispánica, Factores Externos", Arbor, LV, (1963), pp. 21-42; "Unidad y Defensa del Idioma", Bol. de la Real Acad. Española, XLIV, (1964), pp. 387-95.
 - (3) Kany, C.E., American-Spanish Semantics, p. 14.
 - (4) Mostly writers and people with a high level of education.
 - (5) There are other dictionaries besides the dictionary of the Academy (see Bibliography), but the dictionary of the Academy has, in general, been recognised as the "official" lexicon of Spanish.

used, provides no insight into present day usage in Hispanic America. (1)

1.4.1. Hispanic-American Regional Dialects. Henríquez Ureña, in his article, "Observaciones sobre el Español de América" (2), provides a classification of Regional Dialects based on "Orígenes del Lenguaje Criollo", by Juan Ignacio de Armas (3), in which he divides Hispanic America into five Regional Dialects on the basis of substrata (4), historical and political influence, geographical environment, nuclei of Spanish culture, and characteristics of the "conquistadores" and settlers, as follows:

1. The Caribbean Zone (from 1492 on) includes the Antilles, a large part of Venezuela and the Atlantic coast of Colombia, with a substratum of Arawak and Carib.

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- (1) The shortcomings of the Diccionario de la Lengua Española, edición de la Real Academia Española, have been discussed in several publications. See bibliography.
 - (2) (i) Rev. de Fil. Española, VIII, (1921) pp. 357-90; (ii) Ibid. XVII, (1930), pp. 277-84; (iii) Ibid. XVIII, (1931) pp. 120-48.
 - (3) Mentioned in Kany, American-Spanish Syntax, p. viii.
 - (4) On substrata, see, Menéndez Pidal, R., "Modo de Obrar el Substrato Lingüístico", Rev. de Fil. Española, XXXIV, (1950), pp. 1-8; Alonso, A., "Substratum y Superstratum", Rev. de Fil. Hispánica, III, (1941), pp. 209-18, and Malmberg, op. cit.

2. The Mexican Zone (from 1519 on) comprises Southwestern United States, Mexico and Central America with a substratum of Nāhuatl and Maya-Quiché.
3. The Andean Zone (from 1517 on) includes part of Venezuela, most of Colombia, all of Ecuador, Perú, Bolivia and Northwestern Argentina with a substratum of Quechua and Aymará.
4. The River Plate Zone (from 1536 on) includes Argentina, Uruguay and Paraguay, with a substratum of Tupí-Guaraní and Mapuche.
5. The Chilean Zone (from 1514 on) with a substratum of Mapuche.

Henríquez Ureña's classification has served as a starting point for further classifications based on different hypotheses and criteria. (1) From our point of view his classification is useful in that he limits our field to Regional Dialects.

(1) cf. Rona, J.P., "El Problema de la División del Español Americano en Zonas Dialectales", in Presente y Futuro de la Lengua Española, Cultura Hispánica, Madrid, (1964), which also includes a criticism of Henríquez Ureña. And, Vidal de Battini, B. E. "El Español de la Argentina", ditto, pp. 183-92. Also other articles in the same volume on the Spanish of several Hispanic-American countries.

HENRIQUEZ UREÑA'S FIVE ZONES



1.4.2. River Plate Spanish, a Regional Dialect. In his fourth Zone, Henríquez Ureña grouped together the countries of Argentina, Paraguay and Uruguay, mainly on the basis of substratum. But if other criteria are considered, for instance, lexis or phonology, this grouping (together) is not acceptable, especially if one takes into account that Argentina, the largest of the three countries concerned, is in itself a complex of Local Dialects.(1) A consequence of this is that several linguists have redefined the River Plate Zone restricting it to a smaller geographical area, thus converting the larger Zone into a smaller Regional Dialect. A. Barabino, for instance, in "English Influence on the Common Speech of the River Plate" (2) defines the River Plate Regional Dialect as

"The River Plate will be here understood to mean both shores of the Río de la Plata."

whilst A. Castro in La Peculiaridad Lingüística Rioplatense y su Sentido Histórico, (3) restricts it further still, viz.

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- (1) cf. Vidal de Battini, B.E. op. cit., especially maps according to pronunciation of /s/, /rr/, /ll,y/ and use of /vos/ and /tú/, as well as several articles on lexis. See Bibliography.
cf. also Malmberg, B. op.cit. p.59 Footnote 71, "C'est à dessein que je choisis la région de la Plata comme spécimen, et non pas l'Argentine toute entière. Le vaste territoire argentin n'est guère une unité linguistique, ni non plus une unité ethnique."
- (2) Hispania, XXXIII, (1950), pp. 163-65. Barabino's criterion is the number of Anglicisms in the language of Buenos Aires and Uruguay.
- (3) Losada, Bs.As., (1941). Castro's criterion for classification is mainly lexical.

"Palta en las páginas que anteceden la importante indicación de que al pensar acerca del lenguaje rioplatense me refiero principalmente a la lengua de Buenos Aires."

For our purpose we will follow Barabino, and define River Plate Spanish as a Regional Dialect spoken on both shores of the Río de la Plata.

1.4.3. Porteño Spanish, a Local Dialect of River Plate Regional Dialect. Above it was stated that Argentina is a complex of Local Dialects; which of these then, is to be chosen as representative of the language of Argentina? The answer is without doubt, that of Buenos Aires and its suburbs. The choice is based on several factors, as follows:

- a) Of the twenty million inhabitants of Argentina, over eight million live in Buenos Aires and its suburbs. Considering that other zones of Argentina are sparsely populated, Buenos Aires and its suburbs may be considered as representative of the whole population.
- b) Linguists have accepted the importance of this Local Dialect. A. Alonso, for instance, has called Buenos Aires "La Capital Idiomática del Río de la Plata". (1) Two further quotations will serve to prove this point.

(1) Quoted in Vidal de Battini, op. cit. p.184.

"Un problema particular de lengua, en el panorama general del país, corresponde a Buenos Aires, pero que es de singular importancia por la influencia que ejerce su jerarquía política y cultural en el total de las provincias." (1)

"Hasta el primer tercio de este siglo el habla porteña se diferenciaba del español usado en el resto del territorio argentino. Por distintas causas, política centralista, supremacía administrativa, desigualdad económica, viajes, cambios de residencia, facilidad de comunicaciones, influencia de la radiotelefonía, etc., el habla de Buenos Aires se ha extendido a toda la República y la va uniformando aceleradamente. El problema del habla porteña ha llegado a ser el problema del Español en la Argentina." (2)

- c) Buenos Aires may be regarded as the centre of the teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Argentina. This statement is based on the number of bilingual schools, academies, institutes and monolingual state schools etc. where English is taught.
- d) Last, but not least, it is the Local Dialect with which we are most familiar.

The Local Dialect of Buenos Aires and its suburbs is known in Argentina as Porteño (from the Port of Buenos Aires). (See second quotation above).

The variety of Hispanic American Spanish which will be described in this work is the present day usage of the Local Dialect known as Porteño Spanish.

(1) Vidal de Battini, op. cit. p.184.

(2) Alfonso, L. "Tendencias Actuales del Español en la Argentina", in Presente y Futuro de la Lengua Española, op.cit., I, p.180.

RIVER PLATE REGIONAL DIALECT
AND PORTEÑO SPANISH



- ==== River Plate Regional Dialect
■ Porteño Spanish

2. Inclusion of Borrowings in the Definition of "Cognates." The components of the vocabulary of Porteño Spanish will be analysed in this chapter. The outcome of the analysis, together with an account of borrowings from Spanish into English, will justify the inclusion of borrowings in the definition of "Cognates."

2.1. The Vocabulary of Porteño Spanish. Most linguists agree that one of the main differences between Porteño Spanish and Peninsular Spanish lies in the vocabulary. (1)

According to Vidal de Battini, (2) the components of the vocabulary of Porteño Spanish are as follows:

1. The Lexis of Spain
 - a) Archaisms.
 - b) The lexis of modern Spanish.
 - c) Lexical items (3) from Peninsular Regional Dialects.
2. Spanish (of the time of the conquest)-American words
 - a) Spanish lexical items with new Argentine, or Regional or Local meanings.

(1) cf. V. de Battini, op. cit. p. 188 "Las mayores discrepancias del Hispanoamericano con la lengua general se advierten en el léxico."

(2) op. cit. p. 188.

(3) We are using "lexical item" in the abstract sense in which Lyons uses "lexeme"- cf. Introduction pp. 196-99. The use of the term "word" will also be used in Lyons' sense, to refer to graphological and/or phonological and/or grammatical words. (cf. op.cit.196-7).

3. Indigenous Lexical Items

- a) Indian Lexical items which the language of the Conquistadores brought into general use.
- b) Indian Lexical items of the native Indian languages of the country and/or of the neighbouring countries.

4. The Lexis of Foreign Languages

Borrowings from Italian, French, English, Portuguese, etc.

5. Newly coined Lexical items

- a) From a Spanish core.
- b) From an Indian base.

2.1.1. Importance of Each of the Components of the Vocabulary.

From the point of view of Cognates each of these components offers interest, viz.

- Nº 1. Because within these lexical items there will be many which are derived from the same root as English lexical items.
- Nº 2. Will enter into play when we come to analyse the meaning of Cognates. We will find not only differences between Porteño Spanish and British English, but also between Porteño Spanish and Peninsular Spanish.
- Nº 3.a) Because some of the Indian lexical items which entered into Spanish via the speech of the Conquistadores were in turn borrowed by other languages, including English (for instance, canoe, maize, chocolate, etc.)

Nº 4. Because borrowed lexical items from English and French (1) will facilitate the learning of the vocabulary of the foreign language (in our case, English). What we mean by this is that if the Argentine speaker of Spanish is familiar with an English item (or French used in English) in his own language, provided it has the same meaning as in English (2), when he is exposed to it he will recognise and understand it. (3)

Nº 5. Some of the new coinages are directly related to borrowings from English, as we shall see below.

From the above, the most interesting as regards the contact

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- (1) Borrowings in Spanish from Italian, Portuguese, Arabic, etc. will be relevant only if they in turn have been borrowed by English.
 - (2) cf. Baugh, A.C. A History of the English Language, (1965), p.9. "... On the other hand, more than half of its (the vocabulary of English) vocabulary is derived from Latin. Some of these borrowings have been direct, a great many through French, some through other Romance languages. As a result, English also shares a great many number of words with those languages of Europe which are derived from Latin, notably French, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese. All this means that English presents a somewhat familiar appearance to any one who speaks either a Germanic or a Romance language. There are parts of the language which he feels he does not have to learn, or learns with little effort." The underlining is ours. Baugh's claim, of course, has to be qualified, for, because of the fact that ^{some lexical items in} the two languages look alike, it does not follow that the lexical items concerned mean the same in both languages.
 - (3) There is the question here of whether the exposure is oral or written, i.e., if the recognition is aural or visual. In this thesis we will deal with visual recognition only. As far as we know, no study has been carried out on the aural recognition of Cognates. For a Phonological Study of Cognates, cf. Ball Kiernan, D., "Preliminary Investigation into the Phonological Recognisability of Cognates in English and River Plate Spanish", Unpublished Dissertation for the Diploma in Applied Linguistics, Univ. of Reading (1967)

between English and Spanish are borrowings from French (Gallicisms) and borrowings from English (Anglicisms). The different types of each of the above, in existence in present day Portefío Spanish, will be analysed below.

2.1.2. Borrowings from French (Gallicisms). The influence of French on Spanish

was felt especially during the XVIIIth and part of the XIXth centuries. After the uproar caused by the "invasion of Gallicisms" had subsided, many French borrowed lexical items, which continued to be used, were finally accepted by the Academy and entered into its dictionary, (1) whilst others, together with syntactic borrowings which are common in Hispanic-America, are still condemned by the Academy.

Borrowings from French into Spanish consist of:

- a) Borrowed lexical items, i.e. French items incorporated into Spanish, either in their original form, for instance, *régisseur*, or items which have been incorporated into Spanish accompanied by changes in graphic and phonic substance, which conform to

(1) cf. Casares, J. Novedades en el Diccionario Académico, Aguilar, Madrid, (1963), p.19 "La abundancia de galicismos que ahora reciben el espaldarazo muestra bien a las claras que el criterio de la Academia en este punto ha cambiado notablemente. Hoy, muy atenuado el antiguo rigor casticista y más atenta la Academia a recoger la verdadera realidad lingüística, le ha bastado reconocer que un galicismo anda de boca en boca, es de sustitución difícil y resulta en definitiva una adquisición, para darle, sin más el visto bueno."

the graphology and phonology of Spanish, e.g. *matiné*, *tualé*, *chófer*, etc. (1).

- b) Syntactic borrowings, for instance, the use of "a" for "de", e.g. *máquina a vapor*, *cocina a gas*, *buque a vapor*; omission of "a" as in "*visitaré Roma también*"; *¿es que?* in *¿Quién es que habla?*, *¿Es que no lo hiciste/has hecho todavía?*, etc. (2).

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- (1) cf. Robins, General Linguistics, An Introductory Survey, p.314.

"Normally loan words are assimilated to the phonetic sound classes and the phonological patterns of the borrowing language; the original consonants and vowels being replaced by consonants and vowels as close to them as are available; thereafter, synchronically as opposed to historically, they are no longer recognizable by their form as loans. However, in certain cases words continue to be recognised and treated as foreign in origin, and attempts are made to pronounce them as such ... This does not mean that they are pronounced in the same way as they are in the languages from which they have been taken (except by a few specially gifted or trained persons), but it does mean that they continue to be uttered with sounds or sequences of sounds not found in the bulk of the vocabulary of the borrowing language". In transformational terms, borrowings are either made to comply with ^{the} phonological rules of the borrowing language, or ^{the} phonological rules from the source (of the loan word) language, are incorporated into the phonological system of the borrowing language. As regards the latter, cf. Aspects of Phonological Theory, Harper & Row, (1968), p.284. "Studies of complex cases of phonological grammar have actually been carried out recently within the framework of generative grammar. This work, to be reported in a forthcoming monograph (Keyser & Halle, to appear) shows quite clearly that English has borrowed a number of Romance phonological rules."

- (2) For more examples of syntactic borrowings, cf. Kany, American Spanish Syntax, op. cit. cf. also "Los Galicismos", Castro, A. in Lengua, Enseñanza y Literatura, Imprenta Clásica Española, (1924); Portnoy, A., "Notas sobre la Evolución del Castellano en la Argentina", Bol. de la Academia Argentina de Letras, V, (1937), pp. 249-65; Baralt, R.M., Diccionario de Galicismos, Gil, Bs. As. (1945).

2.1.3. Borrowings from English (Anglicisms). Borrowings from French had books and the oral word as their chief vehicles (1), but the influence of English on Spanish (both lexical and syntactic) which started at the end of the XIXth century and has continued throughout this century is due to several media. Alfaro, for instance, says, (2)

"El Anglicismo tiene varios conductos de penetración por donde se cuela como corriente, ora impetuosa, ora sutil, siempre efectiva. Las agencias noticiosas, la prensa periódica, la industria, el comercio, las ciencias, el cinematógrafo, los deportes, los viajes, las mayores y más estrechas relaciones internacionales y sociales entre los países de habla española y los de habla inglesa, y por último, la enorme preponderancia económica, científica de los Estados anglosajones en el mundo contemporáneo, son las causas de que el inglés sea lengua con la cual es forzoso mantener un intenso contacto diario, ya directo, ya indirecto."

To Alfaro's list we must add the medium of television (3) and, in Spain, the great influx of British tourists.

Alfaro, R.J.

- (1) cf. "El Anglicismo en el Español Contemporáneo",/Bol. del Inst. Caro y Cuervo, IV, (1948), pp. 102-28, and Preface to his Diccionario de Anglicismos, Gredos, Madrid, (1964).
- (2) op. cit. pp. 105-6.
- (3) cf. Lorenzo, "El Anglicismo en el Español de Hoy", in El Español de Hoy, Lengua en Ebullición, Gredos, Madrid, (1966), p. 79. "Un nuevo elemento ha venido a sumarse a las tradicionales vías de invasión, la televisión."

There are two prevalent attitudes amongst Spanish (both Peninsular and Hispanicamerican) linguists, towards borrowings from English, on the one hand the condemning attitude, coupled with an attempt (not always successful (1)) to replace these Anglicisms by either neologisms or by existing Spanish lexical items, and, on the other hand, the attitude of those who accept the fact that Spanish is a language capable of incorporating foreign lexical items without cleavage of the system. (2).

Lorenzo, (3) for instance, says,

"Frente a los extranjerismos idiomáticos de todo orden, el peligro no estriba en dejarlos entrar sino en el riesgo, que hoy creemos infundado, de que la lengua acreedora no sepa rechazar lo superfluo ni depurar y encasillar lo necesario o fértil en su sistema. Precisamente el inglés es exponente, como hemos indicado más arriba, de una facultad de asimilación, especialmente léxica, sin igual. La actitud que se debe adoptar en la actualidad frente a la irrupción de anglicismos no debe estar inspirada en el temor ciego e inconsciente de las víctimas pasivas de una inundación, sino en la confianza inquebrantable de que los cimientos de nuestro edificio idiomático son firmes y de que los esfuerzos y el poder creador de nuestros escritores constituyen sólidos muros de contención que luego canalizarán la corriente invasora para fecundar el idioma."

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- (1) cf. for instance the Academy's attempt to replace "balonpié" for the Anglicism "Football" and its final acceptance of "fútbol".
 - (2) cf. as a representative of the former opinion, Mallo, J. "La Invasión del Anglicismo en la Lengua Española de América", Cuadernos Americanos, México, N° 4, pp. 115-23 (1959).
 - (3) Lorenzo, E. "El Anglicismo en la España de Hoy", Arbor, XXXII, (1955), pp. 262-74.

Alfaro in his Preface says,

"... hay que inclinarse en cambio ante la necesidad de adoptar voces exóticas o neologismos útiles o que no tienen equivalente en castellano."

And Dámaso Alonso (1) goes one step further, when he discusses the lexical differences in Hispanic America. He says,

"Afortunadamente, la preponderancia del influjo norteamericano desde el segundo tercio de este siglo altera las cosas. Es tan grande, los mismo en países hispanoamericanos que en España, que la mayor parte de las nuevas voces nos llegan por esa sola vía. He aquí un hecho curioso: el influjo norteamericano puede ser un elemento unificador de nuestro desgraciado léxico." (2)

Our standpoint in this dispute is the acceptance of borrowings as a fact, and a fact directly relevant to the teaching of English as a foreign language, and as such their inclusion is justified in a study of this kind.

2.1.4. Types of borrowings from English (Anglicisms). Alfaro, in his preface to his Diccionario de Anglicismos (3) classifies Anglicisms into

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- (1) In "Para Evitar la Diversificación de Nuestra Lengua", Arbor, LX, (1963), pp. 7-19, p.16.
 - (2) The underlining is ours.
 - (3) See op. cit. pp. 17-19, as well as "El Anglicismo en el Español Contemporáneo", Bol. del Inst. Caro y Cuervo, IV, (1948) pp.115-18.

eleven types. But he takes into account the language of the whole of Hispanic America, as well as the language of Mexicans who live in the south and south west of the United States. As such, some of his generalizations do not apply to Porteño Spanish. (1) The analysis of Anglicisms which follows, is limited to Porteño Spanish.

Anglicisms in Porteño Spanish are of two main types:

- a) Lexical
- b) Syntactic

2.1.4.1. Lexical Anglicisms. These fall into several groups, as follows:

- 1) English lexical items incorporated directly into Spanish, i.e. with English morphology but accompanied by phonological changes.
e.g. standard, ferry, film, living, gangster, jet, radar.
- 2) English lexical items incorporated into Spanish with phonological and orthographical changes.
 - a) Items for whose meaning there already exists a Spanish synonym.
e.g. to park parquear (Sp. estacionar)

(1) See for instance, Alfaro's N° 2 "Los Pochismos", i.e. the language of the "poches" or "pochos" whom he describes as "Los norteamericanos descendientes de españoles o mejicanos" ... "El término se aplica particularmente a los californianos de origen mejicano y por extensión a los mejicanos de nacimiento a vecinados en Estados Unidos."

- b) Cognate items in English and Spanish used in Spanish with their English meaning,
e.g. crucial, financiar, entrenar, salvar, guardar, educacional, balance (por saldo) (1)
- 3) Anglo-Gallicisms, i.e. English items of French origin whose usage in Spanish has come via English.
e.g. masacre, debut, confort, ancestral.
- 4) Pseudo-Anglicisms, i.e. uncommon Spanish lexical items whose cognates in English are more frequent, thus their use in Spanish makes them suspect.
e.g. tentativo, reservación, hesitar.
- 5) Spanish lexical items joined to others in collocations typical of English but not of Spanish.
e.g. rendir servicios, (2) provisiones de la ley.

There are two further types of Anglicisms which have never been dealt with in comparisons of the vocabularies of English and Spanish, namely, Acronyms and Lexicalized Trade-Marks. (3)

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- (1) Most of these have already been accepted by the Academy.
 - (2) "Rendir Servicios" could either be a direct calque from French (cf. on rend un service) or via English. Alfaro considers it an Anglicism whilst Portnoy (1937) considers it a Gallicism.
 - (3) cf. "Acronyms in Porteño Spanish", Colmenero, N. forthcoming in *Lenguas Vivas*, Review of the Instituto Nacional Superior del Profesorado en Lenguas Vivas, *Buenos Aires*. The only article on Lexicalized Trade-Marks in Spanish which was found is "Lexicalización de Marcas Comerciales", Solari, H.E., *Bol. de Fil.*, Montevideo, (1962), IX, pp. 41-55. For processes and patterns in modern Trade-name creation, see Praninskas, J. Trade-Name Creation, Mouton, (1968).

- 6) Acronyms. The influx of acronyms in Hispanic America is a relatively new linguistic phenomenon. Acronyms are of four main types: (1)

- a) Those formed by putting together the initial letters of words, e.g.

YCF Yacimientos Carboníferos Fiscales

EUDEBA Editorial Universitaria de
Buenos Aires.

- b) Those formed by putting together the initial syllables (in some cases more than the initial syllables, cf. second example) of words, e.g.

CONADE Consejo Nacional de Desarrollo

ARGENTORES Sociedad General de Autores
de la Argentina.

- c) Those formed by combining types a) and b), e.g.

CONART Consejo Nacional de Radio-
fusión y Televisión

SOMISA Sociedad Mixta Siderúrgica
Argentina.

- d) Those formed by putting together two words, or an acronym and a word, or viceversa, e.g.

FIBRALANA, CARBOMETAL, VUCOTEXTIL.

(1) This statement is an over simplification. There are several factors (phonological, graphological and semantic) which enter into play in the formation of acronyms as is stated in the cited article.

The above examples are of acronyms in Spanish in use in Porteño Spanish, but acronyms constitute a source of Anglicisms, mainly due to International Organizations founded in or by the United Nations, and organizations in the world of international commerce.

e.g.	UN	United Nations
	UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
	F.B.I.	Federal Bureau of Investigations.
	U.F.P.	United Foreign Press.

- 7) Lexicalized Trade-Marks. Lexicalized Trade-Marks are foreign trade-marks which are now used in the language of Buenos Aires as names for the objects themselves, regardless of the trade-mark. (1) They have thus become lexicalized. e.g.

Birome	Lapicera a bolilla (ball point pen)
Cuáquer	Avena (oats, from Quaker Oats)
Durex(2)	Cinta transparente engomada (Sellotape)
Flit	Producto insecticida líquido (liquid fly killer)
Gillette (3)	Hojas de afeitar (razor blades)
Royal	Polvo de hornear (baking powder).

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- (1) On metonymy and semantic implications of lexicalized trade-marks, cf. Solari, op. cit.
- (2) The author has personal experience as regards the use of this lexicalized trade-mark in Britain, and is well aware of the misunderstandings it creates.
- (3) Gillette is a French trade-mark (the name of the inventor and maker of the first razor blades) which has come into Spanish via English.

2.1.4.2. Syntactic Anglicisms. Syntactic borrowings from English into the form of English in Spanish are fewer than lexical borrowings. Some of the most common are:

estar siendo ...

ley disponiendo ...

curso a seguir ...

aprobado por ...

entrada al, salida del y permanencia en el país.(1)

2.2. Borrowings from Spanish into English. The attitude of British linguists towards borrowings in English has been on the whole much more tolerant (2) than the attitude of Spanish linguists towards borrowings in Spanish. English has always been "favourably disposed" towards borrowings, and has incorporated them into its vocabulary. Alfaro says, (3)

"Esta lengua está favorablemente dispuesta a recibir cualquier vocablo nuevo que prometa ser útil, sea cual fuere su origen. A este respecto el inglés es como los Estados Unidos; posee un notable poder de asimilación, y una vez adoptada una palabra, se incorpora tan completamente a nuestro idioma, que dejamos de pensar en ella como voz extranjera."

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- (1) For examples of other syntactic anglicisms, see Alfaro, op. cit.
 (2) cf. Baugh, op. cit, pp. 264;260ff. and p. 346.
 (3) In op. cit. p.20, in which he quotes Baugh.

Spanish (both Peninsular and Hispanic American) has contributed to the lexis of English in several fields. (1) Some of these borrowings have been incorporated into English with changes in graphology and phonology, as for example, sherry, vanilla, cork, etc., whilst others have retained their original morphology, though, of course, accompanied by phonological changes, (2), for instance, sombrero, pampa, llama, poncho, etc.

2.3. Modification of the Definition of "Cognates" The borrowings from English into Spanish and viceversa have contributed to enlarge the number of lexical items "common" to the two vocabularies. This constitutes justification enough to modify the previous definition of "Cognates" as follows:

Dictionary entries in English and Spanish derived from the same root, and borrowed lexical items from English into Spanish and viceversa.

(1) For these see Alfaro, op. cit. pp. 20-3.

(2) See 2.1.2. footnote (1)

3. This and the following chapter will be devoted to the identification and compilation of the "set" of cognates found in language teaching situations.

3.1. Related Origin of English and Spanish. Historical linguistics has provided us with the fact of the related origin of English and Spanish. (1) If the borrowings discussed in Chapter II are added to this fact, the hypothesis that there exists a large number of cognates which students of English or Spanish will be exposed to during the process of learning the foreign language may be put forward.

3.2. The "Set" of Cognates in English and Spanish from the Point of View of Language Teaching. The above hypothesis may be tested by comparing the vocabularies of English and Spanish. One way of doing so would be to take two dictionaries, for instance, the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary and the Diccionario de la Lengua Española, (ed. Real Academia Española). This would provide the "complete" (2) "set"

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- (1) cf. Menéndez Pidal, R. Manual de Gramática Histórica Española, Espasa-Calpe, Madrid (1944); Enciclopedia Lexis, IV, "Ciencias Filológicas", Seix, Barcelona (1954); Entwistle, W.J., The Spanish Language, Faber (1965); Posner, R. The Romance Languages, Bell (1966); Robins, op. cit. pp. 321-2; Baugh, op.cit., etc.
- (2) As "complete" as it might be expected when one is dealing with open sets as the lexis of both languages are. Other factors must also be taken into account, namely, the outdatedness of dictionaries, their inclusion of archaisms, etc., which contribute to make the "complete set" "incomplete".

of Cognates in the two vocabularies. But it is a recognised fact (1) that the teaching of all of the vocabulary of a foreign language is an impossibility in language teaching situations, where factors like length of the course, actual number of teaching hours, who it is planned for (i.e. the learner, his age, maturity, knowledge of the language, etc.) must be taken into account. Thus it is not the "complete" set which concerns us, but those which occur in language-teaching situations (as found, for instance, in well-known textbooks). Thus, an alternate way for testing the hypothesis is by analysing Vocabulary Lists and/or textbooks. (2)

3.3. Frequency Lists. The pros and cons of vocabulary lists as the basis for textbooks have been discussed

(1) cf. Goughenheim, Michéa, Rivenc and Sauvageot, L'Elaboration du Français Elémentaire, Didier, Paris, (1956); Lado, R. Linguistics Across Cultures, Chapter IV, "How to Compare Two Vocabulary Systems", Ann Arbor, Michigan Univ. Press (1957); Mackey, F.W. Language Teaching Analysis, Longmans, London, (1965), VI and VII; Halliday, M.A.K., McIntosh and Strevens, P. The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching, Longmans, London, (1965); Strevens, P. "The Teaching of Foreign Languages" in Papers in Language and Language Teaching, O.U.P. (1965) pp.23-41; Corder, S.P. "Film and Television in Modern Language Teaching" in Modern Language Teaching, ed. Jalling, H., O.U.P. (1965), pp.63-73; Dutton, B. A Guide to Modern Language Teaching Methods, Cassell, (1965), pp. 56-9.

(2) See Chapter IV, 4.5.ff.

at length in several publications. (1) Their main shortcomings have been found to be that

- a) they take into account only the written medium;
- b) they ignore questions of language varieties; (2) and
- c) some of them were compiled so long ago as to be outdated.

In spite of these shortcomings, which are here acknowledged, because our purpose at the outset is to prove the hypothesis put forward above, we will take the analysis of Vocabulary Lists as a

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- (1) cf. among others, Fries, C.C. and Traver, A.A., English Word Lists. A Study of Their Adaptability for Instruction, American Council on Education, Washington, (1940); Bongers, H., The History and Principles of Vocabulary Control as it Affects the Teaching of Foreign Languages in General and in Particular, Woerden, Netherlands, (1947); Widdowson, H.G. "A Case for the Teaching of L₂ as a Medium for Science", Unpublished Dissertation for the Diploma in Applied Linguistics, Univ. of Edinburgh, (1965); An Account of "Spanish Frequency Lists and of Statistical Studies on the Spanish Word" in A Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words, Juilland, A. and Chang-Rodriguez, E., Mouton, (1964); Chomsky, N. Syntactic Structures, Mouton, (1965), pp. 15-16; Morris, I. "Principles of Vocabulary Control" in English Language Teaching ^{Series} Selections I, ed. Lee, W.R., O.U.P. (1967), pp. 32-39; Hornby, A.S., "Vocabulary Control-History and Principles", Ditto, pp. 40-45.
 - (2) "Language Varieties" is here used in a broad sense to include dialectal varieties, such as geographical, social, etc. (cf. the use of "register" and "style" for social varieties by Catford, J.C. (1965)). The present day controversy over "register" and "style" is the cause for the choice of "variety" rather than using the terminology under dispute. cf., for instance, "Dialect" in Aspects of Language, Bolinger, D., Harcourt, Brace & World, (1968), where Bolinger groups these "social" varieties under Dialect.

basis. (1)

After the consideration of the bibliography on frequency lists and after the examination of several of them, (2) two lists were chosen for analysis, viz. A General Service List of English Words (3) and A Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words. (4)

3.3.1. A General Service List of English Words. The General Service List is based on the Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection (5) which was itself the outcome of the Carnegie Conference which was attended by the "big four" of vocabulary selection - Faucett, Thorndike, West and Palmer. In this conference they set down the criteria for establishing word

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- (1) Cognates found in the analysis of both lists could be used as a basis for which cognates to include in the Dictionary. (See 8.5) Another possibility of use is in the study of "History of the Language", a compulsory subject in Teacher Training Colleges (for English) in Argentina.
 - (2) Bibliography cited on previous page, footnote 1. See also Eaton, H.S. An English-French-German-Spanish Word Frequency Dictionary, Dover, N.Y., (1940); Hoz, V.C. Vocabulario Común, Usual, y Fundamental, Inst. San José de Calasanz, Madrid, (1952).
 - (3) West, M., Longmans, (1953).
 - (4) Juilland, A. and Chang-Rodriguez, E., Mouton, (1964).
 - (5) ed. King, P.S., (1936).

value according to the following scale:

- a) Word Frequency.
- b) Structural Value.
- c) Universality.
- d) Subject Range.
- e) Definition Value.
- f) Word-building Elements.
- g) Stylistic Words.

With this set of criteria, the two thousand words of the Interim Report were decided on as the basic vocabulary for the teaching of English as a foreign language.

This list was revised after the second world war by M. West, who also made use of Lorge's Semantic Count, (1) which is a "count of the occurrence of the various meanings and uses of words as found in a study of five million (or for some words two and a half million) running words." (2) This Semantic Count is based on the differentiation of meanings in the Oxford English Dictionary. West has included the frequency of the meanings "expressed in percentages." (3) The list consists of two parts: the first is the main list of "General Service Words", and the second is a supplementary list of Scientific and Technical words. There is no

(1) For an account of the Semantic Count, see West, M. op. cit. pp. XI-XIII.

(2) West, M., op. cit. p. VII.

(3) Ditto, p. VII.

frequency index for words in this list.

It must be noted that although the list includes 2,000 main entries, there are, in fact, 4,928 entries. (1) This discrepancy arises from the fact that West has conflated different "word-classes" (grammatical words) of the same orthographical word and derivations, into one entry. (2)

Each of the 4,928 entries will be taken separately, mainly to try to adapt the General Service List to the way in which words were treated in A Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words.

3.3.2. A Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words. This frequency list is part of The Structure of the Romance Languages. Juilland's list is the most sophisticated Spanish word count, if by sophisticated we understand: (3)

- a) It is the most modern (1964).
- b) It has taken into account the shortcomings of other Spanish lists (Buchanan, Rodríguez Bou and García de Hoz) and has tried to overcome them. (4)

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- (1) cf. p.VIII "No attempt has been made to be rigidly consistent in the method used for displaying the words: each word has been treated as a separate problem, and the sole aim has been clearness."
 - (2) In which are included "compound-words", phrases, etc. He does separate derivations by dotted lines.
 - (3) For an account of procedures followed, entries, indexes, etc. cf. Introduction, op. cit. pp. V-LXXVIII.
 - (4) cf. reviews by Contreras, H. in *Language*, 42, N°4, pp. 817-21 and Huddleston, R. *Journal of Linguistics*, 3. N°1 (1967) pp.165-6.

- c) It was compiled via electronic devices.
- d) It was weighted using principles of Mathematical Linguistics.
- e) It has indexes of usage and dispersion (1) as well as those of frequency.

Juilland has entered 5,024 words. Each word is entered according to its word-class (homographs are entered separately), Lexical homonyms are also entered separately.(2) So are derivations. (3) The Dictionary consists of two parts: Part I provides information about word entries and word variants in alphabetical order; Part II provides information about entries in decreasing order of usage, frequency and dispersion.

The frequency coefficients range from "a high of 35,144 occurrences, the preposition 'de', to a low of 5 occurrences, a coefficient shared by 110 words." (4)

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- (1) For an account of Dispersion, see op. cit. pp. XLV-LIX, and for Usage, pp. LVI-LXXIV.
 - (2) As regards this point, Juilland's work is unsatisfactory, for he takes into account only a few cases of homonymy and ignores cases of polysemy. cf. Contreras, H. op. cit. p.820, "There is also inconsistency in the treatment of lexical homonyms ..."
 - (3) Derivations are not equivalent to Juilland's "word variants" by which he means inflections, for instance, plurals, feminine forms, verb paradigms, etc. Derivations are taken to mean words in Spanish derived from the same root morpheme by affixation or suffixation, e.g. accidente, accidental, accidentalmente.
 - (4) op. cit. Introduction, p. XLIII.

It must be pointed out that the list is of Peninsular Spanish (1) and therefore does not take into account Portefño dialectal differences. But as no exclusively (2) Hispanic-American list exists, (3) Juilland's will be taken as representative of Spanish.

3.3.3. Analysis of the Lists. The criterion for the analysis of the lists was the definition of "Cognates" in English and Spanish given in Chapter, II, 3, i.e. entries in English and Spanish derived from the same root, plus borrowed lexical items from English into Spanish and viceversa. (4)

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- (1) cf. Huddleston, op. cit. p. 165, "It (the list) is homogeneous to the extent that all words sampled originate from the Spanish Peninsula, and were written between 1920 and 1940 ..."
 - (2) Buchanan, Rodríguez Bou and García Hoz have included Hispanic-American sources as well as Peninsular Spanish sources. cf. Juilland, op. cit. Introduction, p. XIV.
 - (3) Nor any list of Regional or Local Dialects.
 - (4) It must be stated that "derived from the same root" is taken to cover cognates that have had a parallel development in both languages as well as those that have developed along different lines, i.e. those that have acquired the same prefixes and/or suffixes in English and Spanish, and those that have acquired different prefixes and/or suffixes and/or affixes. From a teaching standpoint, the strict etymological definition of "Cognate", i.e. a word derived from the same root, is cognate only if it had a parallel development in both languages, is impractical in the sense that it eliminates words that are sufficiently similar in graphic substance and/or meaning so as to be recognised as cognates. cf. Kendrick, E.J. "A Semantic Study of Cognates in English and Spanish", Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Urbana, Illinois, (1943).

Because of the differences in the entries (Juilland keeps to words, whilst West includes "compound-words" and phrases), each list yielded a different number of subdivisions, as follows:

General Service List

- Subdivision (a) Etymological Cognates and Borrowings.
- Subdivision (b) Etymological Cognates (including compound-words and phrases) with non-cognate translation equivalents.
- Subdivision (c) Etymological Cognates (including compound-words and phrases) with at least one cognate translation equivalent word.
- Subdivision (d) Entries of unknown or uncertain origin.
- Subdivision (e) Non-Cognate entries.

Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words

- Subdivision (a) Etymological Cognates and Borrowings.
- Subdivision (b) Etymological Cognates with non-Cognate translation equivalents.
- Subdivision (c) Entries of unknown or uncertain origin.
- Subdivision (d) Non-Cognate entries.

The items on the lists were entered as follows:

1. Each entry is followed by an abbreviation of the "word-class" to which it belongs.
2. The figures to the right of the entries (both for Spanish and for English) are the frequency indexes as found in

West and Juilland. (1)

3. A /+/ sign following an English entry means that it was found in West's supplementary list.
4. The letter /e/ after the English entry is an estimated frequency of the word as calculated by West et al.
5. In Subdivision (a) of the General Service List, if the Spanish cognate is a borrowing or a Porteño Spanish Anglicism, the name of the author of the dictionary or the article where it was found is included between brackets.
6. In Subdivisions (b) (both lists) we have included the etymological root; below it, ~~in~~ between brackets, cognate pairs of words in English and Spanish, derived from this root, and below this, preceded by the sign /=/ the translation equivalent(s) of the entry as found in the bilingual dictionaries which were consulted. (2)
7. In Subdivision (d) (General Service List) and Subdivision (c) (Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words), we have included the renderings of the following etymological dictionaries, for English, The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology, ed. Onions, C.T. (abbreviated 'Onions' in the lists) and An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language, Skeat, W.W. (Skeat); for Spanish, Breve Diccionario Etimológico de la Lengua Castellana, Corominas, J. (Corominas) and Diccionario Etimológico Español e Hispánico, García de Diego, V. (G. de D.)
8. In Subdivision (d) (Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words) and Subdivision (e) (General Service List) a /+/ sign before the entry shows that it was found to be more remotely related. A /+?/ sign shows that the relationship is not certain.
9. A list of abbreviations precedes each list.
10. A list of the bibliography which was consulted is included after Appendix III.

(1) Note that for comparison of the frequencies, Juilland's frequencies must be converted into percentages.

(2) See Bibliography at the end of Appendix III.

3.3.4. Statistical Results. The statistical results are as follows:

General Service List

Total number of entries (including those in the Scientific and Technical vocabulary ...	4,928	
Subdivision (a) Etymological cognates and borrowings	2,401	48.7%
Subdivision (b) Etymological cognates (including compound-words and phrases) with non-cognate translation equivalents	185	3.8%
Subdivision (c) Etymological cognates (including compound-words and phrases) with at least one ^{COGNATE} translation equivalent ^{WORD} in Spanish ..	118	2.4%
Subdivision (d) Entries of unknown or uncertain origin	31	.6%
Subdivision (e) Non-cognate entries	2,193	44.5%

Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words

Total number of entries	5,024	
Subdivision (a) Etymological cognates and borrowings	3,714	74%
Subdivision (b) Etymological cognates with non-cognate translation equivalents in English ...	713	14%
Subdivision (c) Entries of unknown or uncertain origin	83	2%
Subdivision (d) Non-cognate entries	514	10%

3.4. Conclusion. From the statistical results we may conclude that the number of etymological cognates in the two vocabularies is of considerable size (48% in English, and 74% in Spanish, if we take into account only subdivisions (a)). We could, at this point, agree with Baugh (1), when he says,

"English presents a somewhat familiar appearance to any one who speaks a Germanic or a Romance language (in our case, Spanish). There are parts of the language which he (the learner) does not have to learn, or learns with little effort."

But in the course of the analysis of the lists several facts evolved about factors other than etymological cognateness which play an important part in the recognition and understanding of cognates. These will be analysed in the next chapter.

(1) op. cit. p.9.

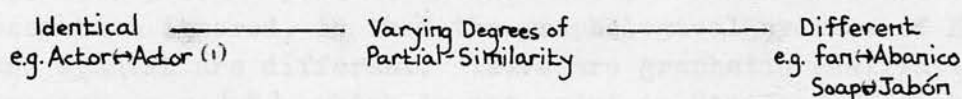
4. Etymological cognateness (including borrowings) was the only dimension which was taken into account in the previous chapter as a basis for the compilation of the "set" of cognates in British English and Porteño Spanish. But from the point of view of visual recognition and inference of meaning, there are other dimensions to be considered, viz., similarity of graphic substance and ^{some of} meaning.

4.1. Visual Recognition of Cognates and Similarity of Graphic

Substance. The graphic substance of cognate lexical items ranges from totally identical to so different in substance as not to be recognised as in any way related. Between the two extremes there is a "zone" of varying degrees of similarity.

Graphically:

GRAPHIC SUBSTANCE OF COGNATE LEXICAL ITEMS



The "set" of cognate lexical items identical in graphic substance has been listed by several writers. (2)

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- (1) ↔ is to be read "etymological cognates". Whenever pairs of cognates are identical in graphic substance, the English item has always been entered first.
- (2) cf. especially, Bolinger, D., "1464 Identical Cognates in English and Spanish", *Hispania*, XXXI, (1948), pp. 280-94; Nunn and Van Scoy, Glossary of Related Spanish-English Words, Univ. of Alabama studies, N° 5, (1949).

The difficulty of recognition arises when we move from one extreme to the other. The question, how similar must similar in graphic substance^{items} be in order to be recognisable, has been ignored by some writers but made explicit by others.

Lado, for instance, leaves this question unanswered, cf. Linguistics Across Cultures (1), p.52,

"English and Spanish have thousands of words that are reasonably similar in form and meaning."

Nunn and Van Scoy, (op. cit.) relate similarity of graphic substance to the root-morpheme. In their list they have included words "which do not vary in more than two letters within their respective Roots". (2)

(1) Ann Arbor, Univ. of Michigan Press (1957).

(2) op. cit. p.1. A point to notice here, which Nunn and Van Scoy have ignored, is that the graphological systems of English and Spanish are different. There are graphetic realizations in Spanish, e.g. [ñ], which do not exist in Standard British English, and some in English, e.g. [th] [ph] which have no counterpart in Spanish. The system of accents in Spanish, a feature of graphology (as well as phonology) works according to a system of rules (cf. Gramática Española, Edición de la Real Academia Española (1959) pp. 479-82; and 'Nuevas Normas de Prosodia y Ortografía de la Academia Española', in Seco, M. Diccionario de Dudas de la Lengua Española, Aguilar, (1967), pp. 503-505. Information about the graphological systems could be included in the introductory section of the Dictionary.

Miller and Farr, in their study of visual recognition of cognate lexical items by High School students (1) take a wider view. If the root-morphemes were recognised, the differences in derivations, differences in "word-class", etc. were ignored. cf.

"The student was given credit for any related word even though the English word was not the same part of speech as the corresponding Spanish word. For example, "agitator" and "agitation" were considered satisfactory answers for "agitar". (2)

From the teaching standpoint, their attitude seems reasonable. If the root-morpheme is recognised, difficulties in false analogy are matters to be dealt with in the actual teaching situation. It is a fact that words are not presented in isolation, but within situations and in the environment of other items. What is required from the teacher's point of view is information as to the derivational rule, i.e. if all possible realizations of the rule are in actual use or not. And this information ought to be included within the dictionary. It is to be noted that in several publications on cognates, derivational correspondences have been listed,

(1) "Student Recognition of Some Spanish-English Cognates",
Modern Language Journal, XXIV, (1939), pp. 216-20.

(2) op. cit. p. 218.

but none of the writers have listed exceptions. (1)

Two results of Miller and Farr's study are relevant if similarity of graphic substance is to be taken as a criterion for the inclusion of items in a dictionary of cognates, namely, the role that the linguistic sophistication of students plays in recognition, and the proportion of easily recognizable cognates in each successive thousand words in frequency lists.

cf. p. 220

"A study of the percentage of correct responses at the various high school levels reveals a tendency toward a directly proportional relationship between high school advancement and the ability to recognize cognates ... The general upward tendency may be attributable to improvement in English vocabulary and to increased experience within foreign languages."

And,

"The proportion of easily recognizable cognates diminishes with each successive thousand (of the Buchanan word list), while that of those cognates not generally recognised increases."

If the number of recognizable cognate lexical items is larger

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- (1) cf., for instance, Ramsey, M.M. A Textbook of Modern Spanish, Revised edition by R.K.Spaulding, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, (1956), pp. 619-22; Nunn and Van Scoy, op. cit. p. 3-5; Terry, P.T., Terry's Shortcut to Spanish, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., (1920); Ball-Kiernan, D. "Preliminary Investigation into the Phonological Recognizability of Cognates in English and River Plate Spanish", Unpublished Dissertation for the Diploma in Applied Linguistics, Univ. of Reading, (1967); Espinosa, A.M. "Palabras Españolas e Inglesas", Hispania, V, (1922), pp. 219-28; Johnston, M.C. "Spanish-English Cognates of High Frequency", Modern Language Journal, XXV, (1941), pp. 405-17; Crawford, P. and Vittorini, D. "English Cognates and Spanish Masculine Nouns", Modern Language Journal, XL, (1956), pp. 391-5. We will return to this point in Chapter VI, 6.2.1. below.

in the first thousand words in frequency lists, and ability to recognize cognate lexical items is in direct proportion to high school advancement, it follows that in a series of textbooks where the vocabulary was chosen on the basis of frequency lists, there will be quite a large number of easily recognizable cognate lexical items.

As regards etymological cognateness and similarity of graphic substance, there are still two points which are relevant. First, in the investigation of etymological cognates, it was found that some English lexical items have cognates in Peninsular Spanish, but such Spanish items are not common in Porteño Spanish, for instance, kettle↔catino; coat↔cota; ink↔encausto. Furthermore, even in Peninsular Spanish these items may be archaic. (1) A consequence of the above is that in spite of being etymological cognates and, in some cases, similar in graphic substance, these items will not be within the vocabulary of the users of the dictionary. (2)

Second, similarity of graphic substance may or may not be due to etymological cognateness. There are some lexical items in English and Spanish which are not related in origin and yet are similar in graphic substance, for example,

red	red
dinner (Spanish etymological cognate: desayuno)	dinero
curse	curso (English etymological cognate: course)
pan	pan

(1) The fact that some of these words are entered in the *Diccionario de la Lengua Española* is no safeguard against this. See 6.2.1.

(2) i.e. available to them. For the principle of *Disponibilité* see Goughenheim, C., Michéa, R., Rivenc, P. and Sauvageot, A., L'Elaboration du Français Élémentaire, Didier, Paris, (1956).

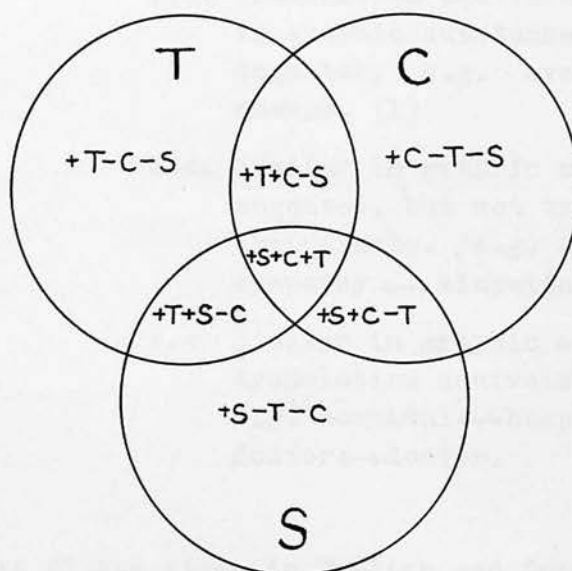
Although from the point of view of teaching these items should not be troublesome, if they are presented within situations, the relevant features of which will clear up misunderstandings as regards similarity of graphic substance and meaning, the question which arises is whether in actual teaching situations the number of these words is really important. We will return to this point in 4.4. below.

4.2. Translation Equivalence and Meaning. For the purpose of the following section, cognate lexical items which are translation equivalents of each other will be regarded as congruent in meaning. The term "translation equivalent" is here used independently from the "cultural functions" which the cognate items might have within their respective vocabularies (in English and Spanish). (This point will be discussed in 5.9. below). A translation equivalent for our purpose is thus taken to mean "an English lexical item which 'normally' translates a Spanish lexical item, or viceversa."

4.3. Etymological Cognateness, Similarity of Graphic Substance and Translation Equivalence in Vocabulary Items in English and Spanish. By taking the vocabulary items in English and Spanish as marked (+) or unmarked (-) for these three dimensions, seven subsets emerge as follows:

- a) [T] Represents the set of all English lexical items which are Translation Equivalents of Spanish lexical items.

- b) [C] represents the set of all English lexical items which are cognate with Spanish lexical items.
- c) [S] represents all English lexical items which are similar in graphic substance to Spanish lexical items.



The subsets are as follows:

1. + T - C - S i.e. Translation equivalents, but neither cognates nor similar in graphic substance.
e.g. sand/arena
2. + S - T - C i.e. Similar in graphic substance, but neither cognates nor translation equivalents. e.g. dinner/dinero; rope/ropa.

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| 3. + C - T - S | i.e. Cognates, but neither translation equivalents nor similar in graphic substance.
e.g. cattle ↔ capital;
danger ↔ dominio. |
| 4. + T + C - S | i.e. Translation equivalents and cognates, but not similar in graphic substance.
e.g. fan ↔ abanico; soap ↔ jabón. |
| 5. + T + S - C | i.e. Translation equivalents and similar in graphic substance, but not cognates. e.g. eye/ojo; news/nuevas. (1) |
| 6. + S + C - T | i.e. Similar in graphic substance, and cognates, but not translation equivalents. e.g. actual ↔ actual; sympathy ↔ simpatía. |
| 7. + S + T + C | i.e. Similar in graphic substance, translation equivalents and cognates.
e.g. hospital ↔ hospital;
doctor ↔ doctor. |

Subset 1) consists of the items in English and Spanish which are not cognates, and as such is beyond the scope of this work.

If similarity of graphic substance is taken as a crucial criterion for inclusion in the dictionary, two further subsets (in which the items are unmarked for similarity of graphic substance may be excluded,

(1) Presumably, in the case of Spanish and English, most of the items in this subset are remotely related. See lists: Subdivision (e) of A General Service List of English Words, and Subdivision (d) of A Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words.

i.e. subsets 3) and 4). (1)

We are therefore concerned with subsets 2), 5), 6) and 7), in which similarity of graphic substance is present in all, cognateness is present in all but 2) and 5), and translation equivalence (meaning) varies. It is with the investigation of meaning of cognate lexical items in British English and Porteño Spanish that this thesis is primarily concerned.

4.4. Relevance in Language Teaching of Lexical Items which are Similar in Graphic Substance but neither Cognates nor Translation Equivalents. Before reaching a final definition of "cognates" (for the purpose of this thesis) it is necessary to investigate how important subset 2)

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- (1) It might be argued that "very" linguistically sophisticated users of the dictionary will be able to identify these cognates. Their inclusion or exclusion rests on whether the dictionary is intended for the general reader who is not interested in nor acquainted with etymology, or exclusively for specialized students, i.e. students of English (or Spanish) from training colleges or universities. Furthermore, we are of the opinion that etymology is the least relevant dimension in cognates. This, together with the fact that the proposed dictionary includes but is not solely intended for linguistically sophisticated readers is justification enough to exclude etymology as a crucial criterion. Information as regards etymology will be included in cases where two words having the same graphic substance are derived from different roots. cf. don- don (in Part II, Practical Analysis).



(lexical items which are similar in graphic substance but neither cognates nor translation equivalents) is for language teaching. A convenient way of doing so is to analyse a series of textbooks in actual use in the type of language teaching situation we have in mind.

4.5. Choice of a Series of Textbooks of English as a Foreign Language for Analysis. From the point of view of the author, there are two types of textbooks for English as a foreign language in use in Argentina, those written by native speakers of English, and those written by Argentine authors. For obvious reasons, the choice must fall on a series of the former type. Three series on British English are in actual use: (a) Foundations of English, (1) (b) A Direct Method English Course, (2) and (c) The Oxford Progressive English Alternative Course. (3) (4)

The Oxford Progressive English Alternative Course has been chosen for analysis on two main counts. The authors state in the Teacher's Book A, page XIII,

"The words used in the four books of the course cover the vocabulary of A General Service List of English Words."

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- (1) Hicks, D., Foundations of English, Longmans, (1959).
 - (2), Gatenby, A Direct Method English Course, Longmans, (1958).
 - (3) Hornby, A.S. and Mackin, R., O.U.P., (1965).
 - (4) The latter is mentioned as being in use at the Instituto Nacional Superior del Profesorado en Lenguas Vivas, Buenos Aires, in El Simposio de Cartagena, "Argentina, Paraguay y Uruguay", Suárez, J.A., Publicación del Inst. Caro y Cuervo, Bogotá, (1965), p. 143.

and,

"The likelihood that many of those who use this course will speak a language in which there are many cognate words has not been allowed to influence the choice of vocabulary."

thus it serves the purpose of counter checking the cognate lexical items found in the frequency lists and the second criterion is a safeguard against the over-inclusion of cognate lexical items in the texts.

4.5.1. Analysis of the Series Oxford Progressive English Alternative Course, Books A, B, C, and D. The analysis was carried out bearing three points in mind,

- a) The definition of "cognates" in Chapter II (i.e. not taking into account similarity of graphic substance.)
- b) The subsets in the vocabularies of English and Spanish as listed in 4.3., above.
- c) The possibility of finding out the relevance of acronyms in actual language teaching situations.

The list is thus divided into four subdivisions, as follows:

Subdivision (a) Etymological Cognates and Borrowings.

Subdivision (b) Non-cognates but similar in graphic substance and meaning.

Subdivision (c) Non-cognates, different in meaning, but so similar in graphic substance as to suggest an item in Spanish.

Subdivision (d) List of Abbreviations (of cognate items) and Acronyms.

Eight new borrowings (i.e. too new to have been recorded in dictionaries) were included. They are marked /°/. Their usage in Porteño Spanish was checked with native informants.

The entries in subdivisions (c) were given translation equivalents in English and Spanish.

e.g. pan pan (loaf, bread)
 = cacerola

4.5.2. Statistical Results. The results obtained are as follows:

Total number of entries	2,802
Subdivision (a) Etymological Cognates and Borrowings.....	2,605
Subdivision (b) Non-cognates, but similar in graphic substance and meaning.....	128
Subdivision (c) Non-cognates, different in meaning, but so similar in graphic substance as to suggest an item in Spanish.....	17
Subdivision (d) Abbreviations (of cognate items) and Acronyms	52

4.5.3. Comments on the Analysis. In the course of the investigation it was found: (a) that the whole approach of the series had been changed in the new edition, i.e.

whilst previous editions had been intended for learners of English in general, it seemed that the new edition was intended for Spanish speaking learners of English (cf. for instance, the introduction of an Uruguayan girl student as one of the main characters in the book), and (b) the number of cognates found and the times they were used in each text was not in conformity with the criterion specified by the authors. We wrote to Mr. Ronald Mackin about this, and in his reply he confirmed both points. (1)

The number of words in subset 2) (non-cognates, different in meaning but similar in graphic substance) shows that this subset is hardly important.

Abbreviations and Acronyms are more numerous.

Another important point is that the number of cognates found is smaller in Book A than in Book B, and greater in Books C and D. A result of this is that the number of cognate lexical items that the students will encounter is in direct proportion to their knowledge of the language. If to this we add Miller and Farr's result, i.e. that with greater sophistication in the language recognition of cognates is easier, we may conclude that once the students are initiated into the recognition of cognates in the first stages of learning the language (Book A) recognition will become easier as their knowledge of the language improves.

(1) His letter is included as Appendix IV.

4.6. Conclusions. From the above we may conclude that similarity of graphic substance of the root-morpheme is important in the recognition of cognate lexical items. The number of cognate lexical items found in "actual teaching situations" is around 2,500. Out of these, only those similar in graphic substance and in common present day use in Porteño Spanish are to be included in the dictionary. Thus we may define "cognates" as:

"Dictionary entries in English and Spanish, similar in graphic substance, derived from the same root, and borrowed lexical items from English into Spanish and viceversa."

2. The theoretical principles that will underlie the analysis of the meaning of language will be discussed in this chapter.

3.1. Theoretical Linguistics, Applied Linguistics and Lexicography

Theoretical linguistics studies language from a scientific point of view in order to make generalizations. In turn, these generalizations are the basis of hypotheses which, until disproved, constitute a linguistic theory. Applied linguistics applies linguistic principles for the solution of specific language problems. In applied linguistics the choice of these principles rests on how well they serve the purpose at hand.

Lexicography, as is well known, is not the work of an individual

CHAPTER V
Lexicography cannot ignore previous work in his field, but must look at it with a critical eye. As Gill says (1):

"In lexicography no one studies language in isolation. He studies it as a social phenomenon, and as such it is not only a part of the culture, but also a part of the life of the community. He studies it as a system of communication, and as such it is not only a part of the culture, but also a part of the life of the community. He studies it as a system of communication, and as such it is not only a part of the culture, but also a part of the life of the community."

Modern lexicography has to get to the bottom of modern linguistics. Linguistics has in the past thirty years moved at a tremendous pace and the lexicographer has to keep up with the changes that

(1) Principles of Lexicography (1963-1964), ed. by Gill, pp. 1-10. Cambridge University Press, 1964, p. 10.

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Lexicography, as is well known, is not the work of an individual isolated in time and space, but a collective enterprise, i.e. the lexicographer cannot ignore previous work in his field, but must look at it with a critical eye. As Gili Gaya says, (1)

"la lexicografía de las grandes lenguas de cultura no es obra individual, sino colectiva. Nadie puede escribir un diccionario original, sino que todos los autores se copian unos de otros, añadiendo y quitando a las obras de sus antecesores lo que les parece adecuado a su época y a los fines que se proponen."

Modern lexicography has to put to use the findings of modern linguistics. Linguistics has in the past sixty years moved at a tremendous pace and so the requirements to be met by lexicography are such that

(1) Prólogo al Tesoro Lexicográfico (1492-1726), ed. del Consejo de Investigaciones Científicas, Madrid, (1960), p. VIII.

dictionaries have become "companions to grammar" (1). As Bolinger says, "One general linguist advises lexicographers to prepare a complete syntactical grammar of their language as a necessary preliminary to writing their dictionary." (2) But for English and Spanish rather than the preparation of a complete syntactical grammar (for several comparisons and grammars exist) it is the exploitation of the available linguistic theory, i.e. the application of linguistic principles, that is the main task of the lexicographer. Furthermore, as drastic changes in lexicography are undesirable in a dictionary with a practical aim, whose would-be-users are for the most part laymen with respect to linguistic theory, this type of lexicography is seen as a compromise between traditional lexicography and modern linguistic theory. The task is twofold: the application of modern linguistic principles and the refinement of the "traditional framework" of dictionaries in order to incorporate new requirements.

In the following sections, the basic principles of transformational grammar and the theoretical framework for semantic analysis

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- (1) Bolinger, D. Aspects of Language, Harcourt, Brace and World (1968).
 - (2) Householder, F.W. Jr. "Lists in Grammars", Logic, Methodology and Philosophy of Science, Proceedings of the 1960 International Congress (Stanford, California. Stanford Univ. Press, (1962)), p.576. (Quoted in Bolinger, op. cit. pp. 289-90).

developed by Katz et al (1), will be outlined with a view to their application in the dictionary.

5.2. Transformational Grammar. Basic Principles. The concept of transformational grammar was developed by Chomsky et al. (2) One of its basic principles is that "language is based on a system of rules determining the interpretation of its infinitely many sentences." (3) This idea that language makes "infinite use of finite means" is not new in linguistics. Wilhelm von Humboldt expressed the same principle in his Introduction to General Linguistics (4). Furthermore, the Spanish school of linguistics has based the analysis of language (along different lines from those of Chomsky) on several of von

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- (1) cf. "The Structure of a Semantic Theory", in The Structure of Language, Readings in the Philosophy of Grammar, ed. Fodor, J.A. and Katz, J.J., Prentice Hall, (1964); An Integrated Theory of Linguistic Descriptions, Katz, J.J. and Postal, P.M., M.I.T. (1964); The Philosophy of Language, Katz, J.J., Harper & Row, N.Y. (1966); "Recent Issues in Semantic Theory", Katz, J.J., Unpublished Monograph, (1966); Weinreich, U. "Explorations in Semantic Theory", in Trends in Linguistics, IV, Mouton, The Hague, (1966); ^{Weinreich, U.} "On the Semantic Structure of Language", in Universals of Language, ed. Greenberg, J., M.I.T. (1963); etc.
 - (2) cf. Chomsky, N., Syntactic Structures, Mouton, The Hague, (1957); Current Issues in Linguistic Theory, Mouton, The Hague, (1965); Aspects of the Theory of Syntax, M.I.T., (1965); Topics in the Theory of Generative Grammar, Mouton, The Hague, (1966); Cartesian Linguistics, Harper & Row, (1966), etc. See Bibliography.
 - (3) Preface to Aspects, p.v.
 - (4) cf. Valverde, Guillermo de Humboldt y la Filosofía del Lenguaje, Gredos, Madrid, (1955).

Humboldt's ideas, notably the above, cf., for instance, what Amado Alonso (1) says,

"La Lengua consiste en un instrumental numerable capaz de expresar pensamientos innumerables."

which reflects Humboldt's way of thinking.

Another of Humboldt's principles which has been adopted by both transformationalists and Spanish linguists is the dynamic creative aspect of language. Von Humboldt expressed this principle thus,

"El lenguaje es algo en cada instante permanentemente transitorio. No es un producto (ergon), sino una potencia (energeia). Su verdadera definición sólo puede ser genética. Es la labor, perennemente renovada del espíritu, para hacer al sonido articulado capaz de la expresión del pensamiento. Ello indica la condición flúida, de potencialidad, sin restricción, del lenguaje: 'El lenguaje no consiste sólo en sus producciones concretas, sino en la posibilidad de obtener otras innumerables'. Debe hacer uso ilimitado de medios limitados, y lo logra merced a la identidad de la fuerza que produce el pensamiento y el lenguaje. O sea, el lenguaje no es una suma de palabras, ni aún una suma de palabras y silencios, además de todas las reglas que las estructuran, sino una movediza disponibilidad organizada. Su organismo no yace como una masa inerte en lo oscuro del alma, sino que actúa como ley, las funciones de la mente." (2)

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- (1) "Prólogo a la edición del Curso de Saussure," pp. 24-5. Quoted in Catalán Menéndez Pidal, D., La Escuela Lingüística Española y la Concepción del Lenguaje, Gredos, Madrid, (1955).
- (2) Valverde, op. cit, p. 36.

The creative aspect of language is thus seen to be related to mentalism in linguistics, and in this respect too, both transformationalists and Spanish linguists have adopted von Humboldt's standpoint. cf. Alonso (op. cit.^{in footnote (1) p. 40} pp. 24-5),

"Si todo cambio (lingüístico) se origina en un hablante individual y se cumple mediante su adopción por la colectividad hablante, ¿cómo podrían los cambios ser ciegos, inconscientes e involuntarios, qué sino la voluntad expresiva, qué sino la conciencia idiomática, quién sino el espíritu - con iniciativa intencional o por abandono - los ha podido iniciar, empujar y cumplir?"

Chomskyan mentalism in linguistics is related to the hypothesis of the existence of an innate mechanism for the acquisition of language present in all human beings. Katz, in his defense of mentalism in linguistics (1) says,

"To explain how speakers are able to communicate in their language, the mentalist hypothesizes that, underlying a speaker's ability to communicate, there is a highly complex mechanism which is essentially the same as that underlying the linguistic ability of other speakers. He thus views the process of linguistic communication as one in which such mechanisms operate to encode and decode verbal messages."

(1) "Mentalism in Linguistics", *Language*, XL, (1964), pp. 124-37.

5.2.1. Competence and Performance. The distinction between competence and performance put forward by Chomsky is roughly equivalent to de Saussure's distinction between langue and parole. (1) As regards de Saussure's distinction, Lyons states that,

"the relationship between langue and parole is very complex, and somewhat controversial. For the moment we may be content with the statement that all members of a particular language-community (all those who speak a particular language, e.g. English) produce utterances (2), when they are speaking the language, which, despite their individual variations, are describable in terms of a particular system of rules and relations: in some sense, they have the same structural characteristics. The utterances are instances of parole, which the linguist takes as evidence for the construction of the underlying common structure of the language." (3)

Competence in Chomsky's terms is the "linguistic knowledge which the speaker/hearer has of his language" whilst performance is "the actual use of language in concrete situations."

The distinction between competence and performance is necessary

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- (1) cf. Lyons, J. Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics, P.51; Postal, P. op. cit. p. 269 and Chomsky, Aspects (1965), p. 4 "The distinction I am noting here is related to the langue-parole distinction of Saussure; but it is necessary to reject his concept of langue as merely^a systematic inventory of items to return rather to the Humboldtian conception of underlying competence of a system of generative processes."
- (2) For the distinction between utterances (instances of parole) and sentences (units of language) see Lyons, op. cit, Chapter V.
- (3) Lyons, op. cit. pp. 51-2.

to determine what the linguist purports to describe. It is the competence (or langue) or language system which the linguist actually describes. (1)

5.2.2. Deep and Surface Structure. The principle of the distinction between deep and surface structure was implicit in the Port-Royal theory of language.(2) Chomsky distinguishes between the "inner" and "outer" aspect of language as Cartesian linguistics saw it, thus,

"... we can distinguish the "deep structure" of a sentence from its "surface structure". The former is the underlying abstract structure that determines the semantic interpretation; the latter the superficial organization of units which determines the phonetic interpretation and which relates the physical form of the actual utterance, to its perceived or intended form", and he concludes, "In these terms we can formulate a second fundamental conclusion of Cartesian linguistics, namely, that deep and surface structures need not be identical. The underlying organization of a sentence relevant to semantic interpretation is not necessarily revealed by the actual arrangement and phrasing of its given components." (3)

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- (1) But in the dictionary, because its main aim is to provide as complete a picture as possible of cognates, some instances of performance will be entered, see 6.2.4.3 below, and Chapter VII.
 - (2) But the principle had, as Chomsky points out, "Cartesian origins and it may be traced to scholastic and renaissance grammar." cf. Chomsky, Cartesian Linguistics, footnote, 67, p.97.
 - (3) op. cit. p. 33.

The principle of the distinction between a surface and a deep structure in language is a characteristic of transformational grammars. As Lyons points out, (1)

"Any grammar that claims to assign to each sentence that it generates both a deep-structure and a surface-structure analysis and systematically to relate the two analyses is a transformational grammar."

The distinction between deep and surface structure is relevant to our work because the meaning is related to deep syntax. (2) It is also important to point out the possibilities of transformation of deep structure into surface structure in both languages, and to show differences in surface structure produced by transformations.

(1) op. cit. p. 248

(2) cf. what Lyons says, op. cit. pp. 268-9, "It has been tentatively suggested that deep-structure analysis (generated by the base component) is irrelevant for the operation of the phonological rules and that the surface structure (resulting from the application to the deep-structure phrase-marker of the singular transformations) is irrelevant for the semantic interpretation of sentences. This is undeniably an attractive hypothesis; but its empirical validation, or refutation, will require a considerable amount of further detailed work. Until such work has been carried out and evaluated, both parts of the hypothesis must be treated with some degree of scepticism. Although the irrelevance of surface structure to semantic analysis remains to be proved or disproved, most linguists who accept the validity of the distinction between deep grammatical structure and surface grammatical structure assume that there is some particularly intimate connexion between deep syntax and semantics." Following Lyons we shall make the same assumption throughout this work.

To sum up: Transformational grammar is mentalistic in outlook, it stresses the creative aspect of language. It states that language is based on a system of rules determining the interpretation of its infinitely many sentences. It presupposes the existence of an innate language-learning mechanism in human beings. It distinguishes between competence (the knowledge that a speaker/hearer has of his language) and performance (actual use of language in concrete situations) and between a surface and a deep-structure in language.

5.3. The Components of an Integrated Theory of Linguistic Description.

According to transformational grammar, the linguistic description of a natural language consists of three components: the syntactic component, the semantic component and the phonological component. Each of these three components of a linguistic description is a functionally interdependent part of the conceptual machinery of a single integrated theory. The syntactic component is fundamental in the sense that the two other components both operate on its output. That is to say, the syntactic component is the generative source of linguistic description. It consists of a base that generates deep-structures of sentences upon which transformations operate to produce surface structures of sentences. The base, in turn, consists of a categorial component, which generates pre-terminal strings and a dictionary or lexicon which contains lexical entries. The other components of a linguistic description provide respectively a semantic interpretation and a phonological representation for each particular

syntactic structure. Thus, the semantic interpretation of a particular syntactic structure describes the meaning of the sentence which that structure underlies. The phonological representation assigned to a structure generated by the syntactic component includes a phonetic representation of the surface structure which serves as the input to the mechanism of speech production.

5.3.1. The Semantic Component. The semantic part of the linguistic description has been developed by Katz et al. The hypothesis put forward by them is that "the semantic competence of a speaker enables him to obtain the meaning of new sentences, and other new compound syntactic constituents, as a compositional function of their parts and grammatical relations." (An Integrated... pp. 12-3).

The semantic component consists of a dictionary that provides a meaning for each lexical item in the language, and second, a finite set of projection rules.

A dictionary entry contains a phonological representation of a word and syntactic and semantic features. (1) Syntactic features are of three types ^{Chomsky, N.,} (Topics, p. 72 ff.): inherent and contextual. Contextual features are further subdivided into strict subcategorization features and selectional features. An inherent feature is defined as "a non-contextual category feature"; a strict subcategori-

(1) cf. Katz, "Recent Issues", p. 24, and Weinreich, op. cit. p. 417 in which he considers a dictionary entry as a triplet (P, G, μ) in which P is a set of Phonological features, G a set of syntactic features and μ a set of Semantic features.

zation feature is defined as "a contextual feature which specifies the frame in which an item can be substituted" and, a selectional feature is defined as "a contextual feature which specifies lexical features of the items with which the item enters into grammatical relations". Semantic features are of two types: semantic markers and semantic distinguishers. Semantic markers are the "formal elements that a semantic component uses to express the general semantic properties." They represent, as Katz says, "the conceptual elements into which a reading (in the dictionary) decomposes a sense." Semantic distinguishers are "the formal elements employed to represent what is idiosyncratic about the meaning of a lexical item." (An Integrated ... p.14) Unlike semantic markers which represent conceptual components of lexical items and expressions, distinguishers mark "purely perceptual distinctions among the referents of conceptually alike senses." (Ibid.) Each reading in the dictionary entry for a lexical item must contain a "selection restriction, i.e. a formally expressed necessary and sufficient condition for that reading to combine with others. Thus, the selection restriction attached to a reading determines the combination with the reading of other lexical items into which that reading can enter when a projection rule (see below) is applied."

The meaning of a lexical item is divided into readings or senses.

Projection rules operate on "underlying phrase-markers that are partially interpreted in the sense of having a set of readings assigned only to the lowest level elements in them. They proceed from the bottom to the top of an underlying phrase-marker, i.e. from the lowest level elements to the whole sentence. There is a projection rule for each distinct grammatical relation, thus the number of projection rules required is dictated by the number of grammatical relations defined in the theory of the syntactic component. In "New Trends in

Semantics" Katz puts forward the hypothesis that projection rules are universal. He says, "The claim then is that there is a set of projection rules in semantic theory, members of which apply in the process of semantic interpretation; for any language whenever the process reaches the point at which their conditions of application are satisfied. This does not imply that every grammatical relation appears in every language, but only that, for every language in which a grammatical relation appears there is the same definition of R (Projection Rule) in terms of a configuration of symbols in a phrase-marker. Likewise, this does not imply that every language has the semantic operation for combining readings corresponding to R, but only that every language that has occurrences of R has the same semantic operation for the meaning of the constituents that bear R to each other. Finally, this does not imply that every language has the same readings, semantic markers, distinguishers or selection restrictions, but only that the semantic structure of every language be best described in terms of constructs that qualify as readings, semantic markers, distinguishers, and selection restrictions."

About the relevance of the "universality" of projection rules, he continues to say, "It is worth commenting, in passing, that, on the view that projection rules are universals, we obtain a very realistic picture of what happens in second language learning. On this view, what we learn beyond phonology, and besides transformations, is a dictionary in which readings, most of which are already in the dictionary for the native language, are correlated with morphemes in the foreign tongue (i.e. a dictionary of the foreign language). We do not also learn a new set of projection rules according to this view and according to everyone's experience in such situations. Once the learner has mastered the phonology and transformations of the

new language, and can obtain the underlying phrase-markers for a sentence in it, he can use the dictionary he has learned to obtain the meaning, because he already knows the right projection rules to apply."

5.3.2. Summary of the Process of Semantic Interpretation. We may summarize the process of semantic interpretation as follows: Given a sentence, the syntactic component yields the structural description and syntactic features which may be of three types: category features, strict subcategorization and selectional restrictions. The semantic component makes use of the information provided by the syntactic component, part of which (the syntactic features) are included in the dictionary together with semantic markers, distinguishers and selection restrictions. Then the "user" of the dictionary utilizes the set of relevant "universal" projection rules which combine the readings of the lowest elements working to the top until the whole sentence is semantically interpreted.

5.4. Adherence to the Basic Principles of Transformational Grammar.

For the purpose of our work we will accept the principles of transformational grammar. (1) In so doing we commit ourselves to a

(1) Notice that we are leaving for the moment the consideration of the possible application of Katz's semantic framework. This will be discussed in 5.7.2. and ff. below.

mentalistic conceptual outlook in semantics. But this does not imply that we accept introspection, or, as Haas puts it, "a procedure of people looking into their minds, each into their own" (1) as the only means for the identification of differences in the meaning of cognates. The lexicographical tradition in both languages provides us with a basis for the comparison of the meanings of cognates. As was said in Chapter I, the purpose in the construction of a dictionary of cognates is twofold in the sense that differences in meaning of lexical items in Porteño Spanish and Peninsular Spanish must be identified and recorded as well as differences between Porteño Spanish and English. Six main reference books will be taken as a basis: for English, The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, (henceforth S.O.E.D.) the Concise Oxford Dictionary, (henceforth C.O.D.), the Penguin English Dictionary, (henceforth P.E.D.) and The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, (henceforth Hornby), and for Spanish, the Diccionario de la Lengua Española, Edición de la Real Academia Española, (henceforth D.R.A.E.) and Diccionario de Uso del Español, (2) (henceforth D.U.E.). There are also a number of publications on the phonology, syntax and semantics, as well as dictionaries of Hispanic-American Spanish (3) which will also be taken as

(1) Quoted by Lyons, op. cit. p. 408.

(2) Moliner, M., Gredos, Madrid, (1966). This dictionary was found to be the most suited to our purpose in the sense that Moliner has not only improved on the shortcomings of D.R.A.E. (see Casares, Introducción a la Lexicología Moderna, Pub. del Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Rev. de Fil. Española, Anejo LII, Madrid, (1950); Berro García, A., "Formación del Gran Diccionario de la Lengua Española", Bol. de Fil., Montevideo, (1951), pp. 300-7; etc.) but has also included relevant syntactic information, and, above all, she has included information about Hispanic American usage. See, Presentación, op. cit.

(3) See bibliography.

reference. But whenever differences in meaning are not found recorded in reference books, these differences, whenever possible will be identified via the comparison of the structure of the lexical "subsets" and "fields" (1) in the vocabularies. In other words, what we are here advocating is the need to take into account extra-linguistic features, i.e. the need to recognise "that the language of a particular society is an integral part of its culture (2), and that lexical distinctions drawn by each language will tend to reflect the culturally important features of objects, institutions and activities in the society in which the language operates".(3) Implicit in the above assertion that particular languages reflect the culturally important distinctions of the society in which they operate is, as Lyons says, "a commitment to the acceptance of a certain degree of linguistic and 'cultural relativity'." (4) This cultural relativity

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- (1) For the notion of Field Theory, cf. Ullman, Principles ... pp. 152 ff; Giraud, La Semantique, pp. 68 ff. and pp. 81 ff. in which he compares Trier's and Matoré's (see La Méthode en Lexicologie, Didier, (1950)) theories; Ohman, "Theories of the Linguistic Field", Word, IX, (1953); Waldron, Sense and Sense Development, Deutsch, (1967). See also Chapter VII.
 - (2) Culture is here used by Lyons "in the sense in which this term is used by sociologists and anthropologists", op. cit. p.433.
 - (3) Lyons, op. cit. p.432. Notice that this is a point of departure from Katz's theory of semantics where there is no place for the systematization of the "knowledge of the world". cf. The Structure ... p. 489, and for criticisms of Katz, cf. Bolinger, op. cit and Weinreich, op. cit.
 - (4) Notice, however, how far removed this linguistic relativity is from the Whorfian hypothesis that our "categorization of the world is totally determined by the structure of our language", Lyons, op. cit. p.433; cf. Waldron, op. cit. Chapter IV; Carroll, J.B. "Linguistic Relativity, Contrastive Analysis and Language Learning", IRAL, I, (1963), pp.1-20; Fishman, J.A., "A Systematization of the Whorfian Hypothesis", Behavioural Science, V, (1960), pp. 323-339.

is responsible for the difference in meaning of lexical items in Porteño Spanish and Peninsular Spanish, for, in spite of the fact that the "culture" of the peoples who speak the language (Spaniards and Argentines) is basically one, the countries of Hispanic-America, due to historical, geographical, economic and other factors, have moved away from the traditions of Spain (1) and these differences which are absent from the "official" dictionary must constitute a basic part of the dictionary of cognates.

5.5. Cultural Overlap and its Relevance for Language Teaching.

As regards English and Spanish (both Peninsular and Porteño), if the Western European tradition of the peoples who speak the languages, (2) plus the influence that Britain has exercised on Argentina (3) are

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- (1) cf. Alonso, A. "Americanismo en la Forma Interior del Lenguaje", in Estudios Lingüísticos, Temas Hispanoamericanos, Gredos, Madrid, (1967), pp. 61-83.
 - (2) As regards the population of Argentina as a whole (20 million inhabitants) there are only 25,000 Indians; the rest are either foreigners (2 million) or Argentines mostly of European descent. One is therefore justified in claiming a Western European tradition for the people of Argentina, and especially of Buenos Aires, where Porteño Spanish is spoken.
 - (3) The River Plate area, (especially Argentina and Uruguay) has traditional intellectual, economic and cultural ties with Britain. See Pendle, G. Argentina, and Uruguay, O.U.P. (1963); Mulhall, M.G., The English in South America, Stanford, London, (1878). A point to be noted is that the first bilingual school (English and Spanish) in South America, St. Andrew's Scots School, was founded by the Presbyterian minister, the Rev. J. Brown, in 1826, only ten years after Argentina had become an independent country.

taken into account, it may be said that there is a large degree of cultural overlap between the "cultures" and as such there will be many cultural features in common. The differences that exist will again be due to the way in which the "fields" and "lexical subsets" are structured. This cultural overlap has direct relevance for the learning of English or Spanish as a foreign language. As Lyons says, (1)

"Practical experience of learning foreign languages (in the normal conditions in which the languages are used) suggests that we quickly identify certain objects, situations and other features in the area of cultural overlap and learn words and expressions that apply to them without difficulty. ...Entry is made into the semantic structure of another language in the area of cultural overlap; and that, once we have broken into the circle by means of the identification of items in this area we can gradually develop and modify our knowledge of the rest of the vocabulary from within, by learning the reference (2) of lexical items and the sense-relations (3) that hold between them in the contexts in which they are used."

If we grant that (a) there is a large degree of cultural overlap between Spanish and English, (b) that entry into the foreign language ^{is made} via this area of cultural overlap, and (c) that the meaning of the lexical items in their "field" within the vocabulary will make overt cultural differences, the conclusion we derive for lexi-

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- (1) op. cit. pp. 433-4 and Structural Semantics, Blackwell, Oxford, (1963), pp. 56 and 82.
 - (2) Reference is used by Lyons in a different sense from the one in which the word is usually used. cf. "Reference and Sense", op.cit. pp. 424-7. See also 5.8. below.
 - (3) For sense-relations, hyponymy, synonymy, antonymy, etc. see Lyons, Structural Semantics and Introduction, (Chapter on Semantics, ^{Chapter IX} for the use of Hyponymy in our practical analysis, see Chapter VII.

cography (and it must be remembered that the dictionary is geared towards language-learning) is that in order to facilitate the learning of the foreign language the differences in cultural features must be specified in the dictionary. It must be stressed here that for us these cultural features are part of the competence which is to be described. Thus, within our mentalistic outlook (in the sense of accepting the basic principles of Transformational grammar and in accepting as we shall see below, the specification of the meaning of cognates as conceptual definitions) methodological procedures along structural semantics (1) are welcomed as the least subjective (2) and most effective means of identifying and specifying cultural features.

5.6. Information about Lexical Items in an Entry of a Dictionary of Cognates. One of the main contributions of an integrated theory of linguistic description for the dictionary is that the conception of interdependence of the three components allows for information from the three sources to be incorporated into a dictionary entry.(3) The inclusion of information from the three

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- (1) As Lyons understands it. See Structural Semantics and Introduction.
 - (2) Though not completely so, as there are subjective factors which enter into play, for instance, in the choice of the way in which the "field" is to be mapped out and the choice of relevant dimensions. cf. Introduction to Part II.
 - (3) The scope for the specification of relevant relationships is thus extended to cover what is known in some theories as "grammatical" and "lexical" meaning. cf. Fries, The Structure of English, An Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences, Longmans, (1951), and Halliday, "Categories for the Theory of Grammar", Word, XVII, (1961).

components has been favoured in the past by lexicographers to a greater or lesser degree according to the aim(s) of their dictionaries. (1) But in studies on cognates in English and Spanish, (2) the inclusion has by no means been systematic. Shortcomings of the failure to incorporate part of the relevant information ^{from one or more of the components} (are evident when well-known studies on the subject are examined. For instance, in Nunn and Van Scoy's Glossary (3) which is evidently intended for students, (4) no phonological or syntactic (other than category features) information is provided, stress is laid on "similarity of spelling and meaning". Yet, by equating items such as actual ↔ actual; conductor ↔ conductor, they ignore the questions of incongruencies of meaning and questions of different readings of lexical items (polysemy). In this way they actually lead students to pitfalls and this renders their study of little use. In other works such as Beyond the Dictionary in Spanish (5) and Embarassing Moments in Spanish (6) the haphazard inclusion of syntactic markers, exclusion of phonological information and the subjective treatment of meaning (see 5.10.2. below) are evident.

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- (1) For opinions as to inclusion or exclusion of syntactic information in dictionaries, cf. Problems in Lexicography, ed. Householder, F.W. and Saporta, S. in International Journal of American Linguistics, XXVIII, (1962).
- (2) See Bibliography.
- (3) op. cit.
- (4) op. cit. Introduction, p.2.
- (5) A. Bryson Gerrard and J. de Heras Heras, Cassell, (1964).
- (6) Mosél, James N., Ungar, (1945).

In conclusion, an entry in the dictionary will be considered as a triplet (P, G, \mathcal{U})⁽¹⁾ in which P stands for a set of phonological features, G a set of syntactic features and \mathcal{U} a set of semantic features. In the next chapter relevant phonological and syntactic features will be discussed. The rest of this chapter will be devoted to the discussion of semantic features.

5.7. Semantic Markers and Distinguishers in the Analysis of the Meaning of Cognates. In 5.3.1. above the framework of Katz's semantic theory was outlined. Semantic markers were defined as "the formal elements that a semantic component uses to express general semantic properties." They are the "conceptual elements into which a reading (in the dictionary) decomposes a sense⁽²⁾ Semantic markers are "independent of the particular semantic structure of any given language." These components "might be combined in various ways in different languages (and thus yield 'senses' or 'concepts' unique to particular languages) but they would themselves be identifiable as the 'same' components in the analysis of all languages." Semantic components are thus said to be universal. Taken literally, i.e. valid for all languages and all peoples the claim of the universality of semantic components seems a doubtful proposition. But it is to be noted that in this particular case the consideration of components as universal is

(1) We follow Weinreich in this. cf. op. cit. p.417.

(2) For the way in which a sense is decomposed into semantic components see Lyons, op. cit. "Componential Analysis and Universal Semantics," pp. 470-81.

limited to considering them universal or "the same" for Spanish and English. Referring again to the cultures as well as to the Western grammatical tradition of Britishers, Spaniards and Argentines who speak these languages, the problem of considering components as "universal" for both languages is not so great as if the process of equating components were to be carried out between languages spoken by peoples whose cultures and traditions have less points of contact. And after all, Spaniards, Argentines and Britishers are used to, if not explicit, implicit "semantic markers" as found in dictionary definitions. (1)

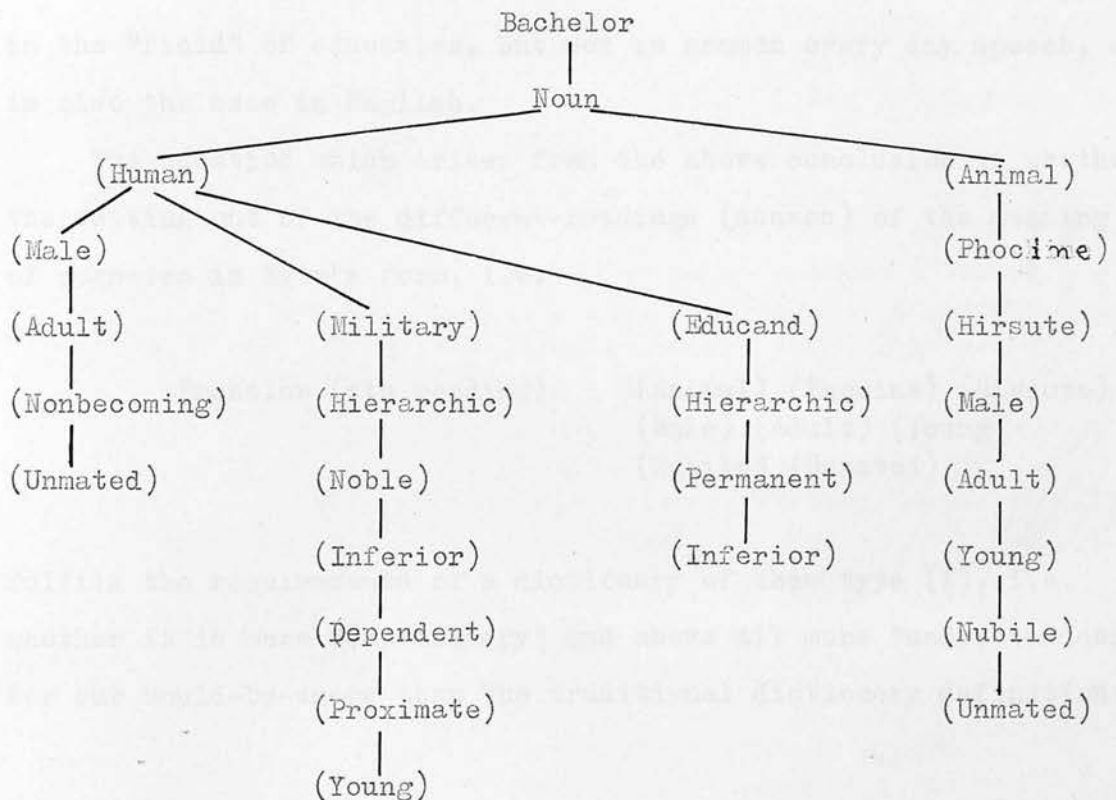
In the course of our investigation we tried out a componential analysis of meaning via semantic markers and it was found

- a) The identification and naming of semantic markers for cognates was too subjective and ad hoc at this stage of the development of the theory.
- b) Whilst with some lexical items it was found that they were easily analysable into semantic markers, with others it was found that it was not a question of "black and white, but somewhere in between." What we mean by this is that the "referential boundaries were hard to determine" (2) and as such some items were found to be "resistant" to a clear-cut, discrete analysis of this type.

(1) For implicit semantic markers in dictionaries, see Bolinger, "The Atomization of Meaning", *Language*, XLI, No 4, (1965) pp.564-5.

(2) Lyons, *op. cit.* p. 426.

- c) The number of semantic markers increased as the analysis went on and the implication of where to draw the line became evident. (1)
- d) But, above all, and this is a criticism also pointed out by Lyons, (2) we found that in trying to "name" components we were using language far removed from the vocabulary of the would-be-users of the dictionary. Let us elaborate this point further by taking Bolinger's analysis of /bachelor/ in his article.



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- (1) On this point see Bolinger, *op. cit.*
- (2) *op. cit.* p.479. "It is one of the concomitant dangers of componential analysis that it tends to neglect the difference in the frequency of lexical items (and therefore their greater or less 'centrality' in the vocabulary)."

The point in choosing this analysis rather than any of the other exemplifications found in books on the subject is that Bolinger, in trying to draw more specific distinctions, has included more markers and many of these are cognates. Now, consider the potential for misunderstanding and confusion of the markers (Phocine) (Hirsute) and (Nubile) which would require (at least for some users of the dictionary) the looking up of the "meaning" of the markers themselves. Consider also the use of (Educand): "educando" is common in Spanish in the collocation "educar al educando" in textbooks on Pedagogy and in the "field" of education, but not in common every day speech, as is also the case in English.

The question which arises from the above conclusion is whether the setting out of the different readings (senses) of the meaning of cognates in Katz's form, i.e.

Bachelor (4th reading)	(Animal) (Phocine) (Hirsute)
	(Male) (Adult) (Young)
	(Nubile) (Unmated)

fulfils the requirements of a dictionary of this type (1), i.e. whether it is more "explanatory" and above all more "understandable" for our would-be-users than the traditional dictionary definition;

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- (1) If the dictionary were programmed for machine translation the semantic marker type of analysis would be more adequate. On this point see Bolinger, op. cit.; Cohen, The Diversity of Meaning, Methuen, (1966), Chapter II; Pottier, S., Lingüística Moderna y Filología Hispánica, Gredos, Madrid, (1968).

Bachelor

A young fur seal when without a mate during the mating breeding time. (1)

According to the conclusions arrived at above, we are of the opinion that it is not. We therefore abandoned the idea of specifying the meaning of cognates via semantic markers and distinguishers for the more traditional definitions of dictionaries. (2) (3)

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- (1) It must be mentioned in passing, that this reading of "bachelor" which is included by Katz in most of his books and/or articles is not entered either in the S.O.E.D., in the P.E.D., nor in Webster's New Twentieth Century Dictionary.
 - (2) We will take the definitions as we find them in the dictionaries cited above. In some cases (when the language used is too "stilted" or "formal", or when we need to include Porteño Spanish readings, etc.) they will be altered. The discussion of different types of dictionary definitions is beyond the scope of this paper. We refer the reader to Waldron, op. cit. pp. 55-7; Prólogo al Diccionario de Uso del Español, Moliner, op. cit.; Prólogo, Introducción a la Lexicografía Moderna, Casares, J., Pub. del Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Madrid, (1950), pp. 158-61.
 - (3) As a result of the above choice we need not go into considerations of the status of semantic markers versus semantic distinguishers, a point which has also come under criticism by Bolinger, op. cit. and Weinreich, op. cit. Nor do we need to go into the question of "at what point in the generative system of the lexical-substitution rules will apply" which, as Lyons, says (Introduction, p.166) is a disputed question. What we will assume, as is common practice, is that when using a dictionary human beings are able to "interpret" and put into use the facts codified in the dictionary if these are set down in a clear and comprehensible way.

The above does not mean that the principle of semantic markers was not found useful in other respects and to this we turn below.

5.8. Conventional Definitions, Reference, Sense-Relations and the Use of Non-cognate Lexical Items in the Definitions. Conventional lexicography takes into account two fundamental relationships in semantics for the definition of the meaning of lexical items, viz. their reference or denotation and their sense relations. By reference is understood "the relationship which holds between words and the things, events, actions and qualities they 'stand for'." (Lyons, (1968) p. 424). Sense-relations are the syntagmatic and/or paradigmatic relations which hold between the lexical items of a language. (1) Now, because cognates are a "set" within two larger "sets", the specification of these relations, i.e. the definitions, will perforce contain non-cognate as well as cognate lexical items. This fact is relevant to and will influence the choice of the language (monolingual vs. bilingual) in which the dictionary will be written.

5.9. Unambiguous and Ambiguous Lexical Items as Regards the Number of Readings in their Meaning. The meaning of a lexical item may be made up of one or more readings. Lexical items of the former type are, from the point of

(1) Sense-Relations will be discussed in Chapter VIII.

view of choice of readings, unambiguous (cf. Katz, "Recent Issues ..." p. 13) and lexical items of the latter type are ambiguous (op. cit. p. 23). (1)

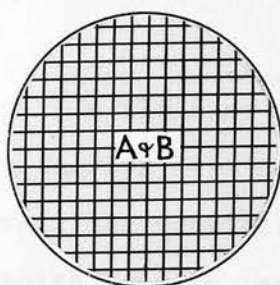
If we consider unambiguous cognate items (items whose meanings consist of only one reading) across languages (in our case English and Spanish), their readings may be (a) Congruent, i.e. readings in English and Spanish which may be put into correspondence (as regards reference) (2) with one another, e.g. planet \leftrightarrow planeta, or (b) Incongruent, i.e. readings in English and Spanish which may not be put into correspondence with one another, e.g. embarrassed \leftrightarrow embarazada.

Graphically:

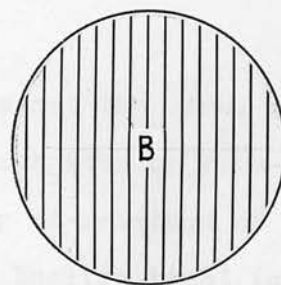
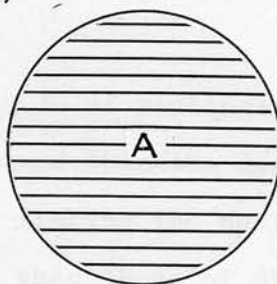
A represents all the readings of the English item.

B represents all the readings of the Spanish item.

a)



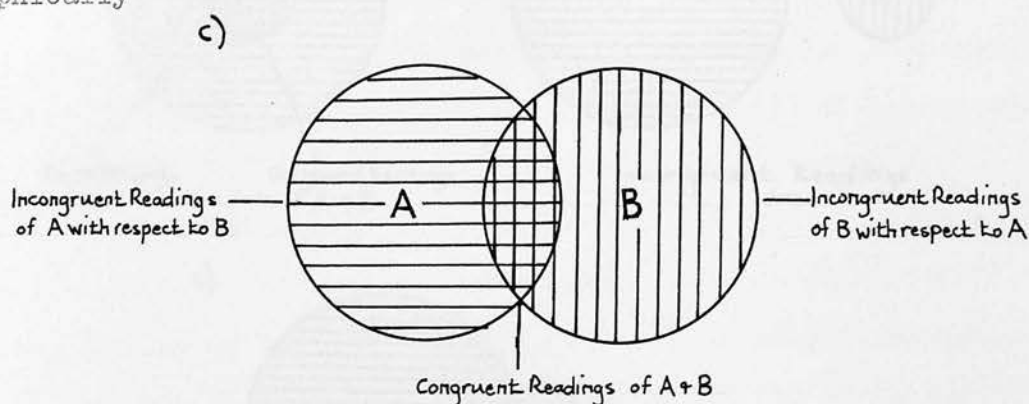
b)



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- (1) cf. Ullman's one sense - one name, and one name - several senses (polysemy) in An Introduction to the Science of Meaning, Blackwell, (1964) and Principles, p. 92 ff. For polysemy see Bréal, Semantics, Chapter XIV, Dover, (1964).
- (2) Sense-relations may vary within "congruent" cognates in different contexts.

Now, if we consider ambiguous cognate items (those whose meaning consists of more than one reading) across languages, given the number of readings equal in English and Spanish, the possibilities are: (a) that all the readings are congruent (diagram (a) above); (b) that all the readings are incongruent (diagram (b) above) and (c) that some of the readings are congruent and some are incongruent. These items we will call partially-congruent cognate lexical items.

Graphically



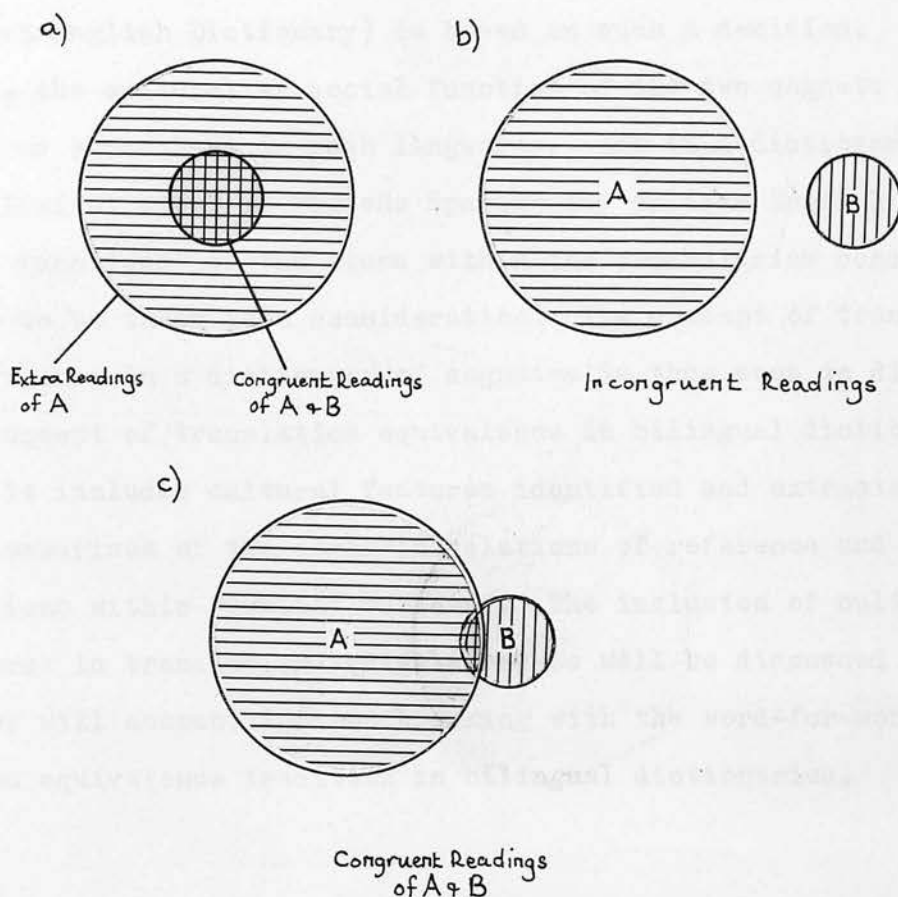
In the case where the number of readings is not the same, i.e. the English item has more readings than the Spanish item or vice-versa, the possibilities are: (taking the number of readings of the Spanish item as less in number than those of the English item) (a) all the readings of the Spanish item are congruent with some readings of the English item, (b) none of the readings of the Spanish item are congruent with any of those of the English item, and (c) some of the readings of the Spanish item are congruent with some of the readings of the English item.

Graphically:

A represents all the readings of the English item.

B represents all the readings of the Spanish item.

The larger circle represents the more numerous readings of the English item.



5.10. The Concept of Translation Equivalence in Bilingual Dictionaries and in a Dictionary of Cognates. Bilingual dictionaries are noted for translating a word in the source language by another word in the target

language. (1) The main reason given by this is the lack of available space. It may be said that bilingual dictionaries base their concept of translation equivalence on decisions about the "culture invariant" functions of lexical items. For instance, the translation of English "hospital" by its Spanish cognate "hospital" (Cassell's Spanish-English Dictionary) is based on such a decision. In other words, the cultural or social function of the two cognate words is taken as equivalent in both languages. But in a dictionary of cognate lexical items in Porteño Spanish and British English the "cultural functions" of the items within the vocabularies concerned ought to be taken into consideration. The concept of translation equivalence in a dictionary of cognates is thus seen to differ from the concept of translation equivalence in bilingual dictionaries in that it includes cultural features identified and extracted from the comparison of the semantic relations of reference and sense-relations within "lexical subsets". The inclusion of cultural features in translation equivalence, as will be discussed in 7.5. below, will account for the breaking with the word-for-word translation equivalence tradition in bilingual dictionaries.

(1) We follow Iannucci's use of the terms "source" and "target" which he defines as follows: "'source' language is used here to mean the language of the words listed alphabetically and to be translated in a bilingual dictionary, and 'target' language is used to mean the language of the translations", in "Meaning Discrimination ...", *Modern Language Journal*, XLI, (1957), p. 272, note 3.

5.10.1. Semantic Markers as Cultural Distinguishers. Cultural differences of cognate lexical items in English and Spanish need to be specified in a clear and economical way in the dictionary. The proposal put forward for the specification of cultural features is via Semantic Markers. Let us take an example: the Spanish-speaker learner of English (or viceversa) consults a bilingual dictionary for the translation equivalent of "hospital" and finds (Engl.) "hospital"(1) But is the "cultural function" of the English cognate "hospital" really equivalent? Let us examine the definitions of "hospital" in English and Spanish.

C.O.D. Institution for the care of the sick or wounded.

P.E.D. Place where the sick and injured are lodged and given medical treatment.

D.R.A.E. Establecimiento en que se curan enfermos por lo general pobres. (2)

D.U.E. Establecimiento donde se asiste a los enfermos; se da este nombre a los de asistencia gratuita, (3) para pobres, militares, etc.; pues, al crearse establecimientos de esta clase de pago, han ido recibiendo otros nombres, para diferenciarlos de los tradicionales, que tenían aquél carácter. v. casa de maternidad, clínica, sanatorio.

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- (1) In studies on Deceptive Cognates (what we have called Incongruent and partially-congruent cognates) "hospital" was not found.
- (2) The underlining is ours.
- (3) The underlining is ours.

The phrase "por lo general pobres" (D.R.A.E.) which refers to the patients, marks the item for a cultural difference. Notice that D.U.E.'s "de asistencia gratuita" does not really show up the difference between English "hospital" and Spanish "hospital", for in Britain under the National Health Service Scheme hospitals are also free, and there is no distinction as to (+ poverty) of the patients. (1) This cultural feature may be expressed via a semantic marker (using Katz's convention of enclosing markers between brackets) (2) attached to the meaning of the Spanish item. Thus a Semantic Marker of this type would act as a Cultural Distinguisher.

5.10.2. Cultural Features in Works on Cognates. Let us now see how existing works on cognates deal with the problem of cultural features. For this purpose we will take the reading for "Professor" in Beyond the Dictionary in Spanish. (3)

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- (1) The English sentence "John is in hospital" would produce no reaction other than something like "What's the matter with him?" or, "Has he had an accident?" or, "Is he ill?", but the Spanish 'equivalent' "Juan está en el hospital" would produce a (perhaps unvoiced) reaction of something like "Poor devil, can't he afford better treatment?"
 - (2) cf. An Integrated Theory, p. 13.
 - (3) op. cit.

Professor Something of a falso amigo as its ordinary meaning is simply "teacher". The Spanish (1) for professor is "catedrático". As a title attached to somebody's name it may do service in either language, but you should bear in mind that it brings with it far less prestige in Spanish than in English.

Apart from the *unsystematic* way in which the authors gloss the word, what does an English speaker understand by "as a title attached to somebody's name it may do service in either language"? What service? Presumably, if one calls Mr. Jones "Professor" what one gathers is that he is neither a butcher nor a baker and that in being somebody engaged in the teaching profession he has, according to Spanish or Hispanic-American standards a certain degree of education and a somewhat high social status. And the sequence "you should bear in mind that it brings with it far less prestige in Spanish than in English" points to an even higher status in the English item! But why? And this is precisely the *problem*. A comparison of the lexical subsets "Persons Engaged in Teaching" (see Practical Analysis) shows that the English lexical item "professor" is marked with the Cultural Semantic Markers (Higher Education) (Highest Rank on Scale of University Teachers) (2) whilst the Spanish item is not, i.e.

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- (1) Peninsular. In Port. Sp. "Profesor" is more common than "catedrático", which is used in "formal style".
 - (2) In terms of sense-relations, (which will be discussed in Chapter VIII) "professor" and "profesor" have different sense-relations with other items in the "lexical subset", i.e. the English item is "incompatible" with reader, lecturer, etc., as well as being a "hyponym" of teacher. In Spanish, "profesor" is the superordinate term for the subsets "Persons who have obtained the degree of 'Profesor'". Notice that the syntagmatic modification of the superordinate "profesor" is used at every stage in education, thus Profesor Primario, Profesor Secundario and Profesor Universitario.

"profesor" may be used at all stages of education including, in Portefio Spanish, (Higher Education) and (Highest Rank on Scale of University Teachers). By means of the above example we see the general trend of works on the subject as regards the treatment of cultural features. Cultural Semantic Markers would be more economical and more to the point. It must be stressed that in some cases (as the above) the Cultural Semantic Markers will have to be specified in more than one word, so that the Cultural Semantic Markers here proposed will differ from Katz's conception of the term, as a discrete, one word specification of components of a sense. As these Markers ought to call the attention of the user of the dictionary, as they mark relevant cultural differences, the proposal for their inclusion is that they should follow after the reading of the word, preceded by "Cult. Sem. Mark.".

5.11. Semantic Markers in a Dictionary of Cognates as a Cross-Reference to Conceptual Dictionaries. Conceptual dictionaries vary from conventional dictionaries in the sense that in them it is the hierarchical structure of the vocabulary which underlies the arrangement of words. Roget's Thesaurus (1) is a well known conceptual dictionary of English. In it, words are grouped under headings which are themselves subordinate to general categories, Abstract Relations, Space, Matter, Intellect, Physics, Sensation, Volition, and Affections.

(1) Collins, London, (1962).

Its counterpart in Spanish is Casares' (1) Diccionario Ideológico de la Lengua Española. But Casares has adopted another framework for classification. His two main categories are God and The Universe. The Universe is subdivided into the Organic and the Inorganic World. The former is subdivided into Plants and Animals. Animals are subdivided into Human and non-Human (notice the parallelism with syntactic subcategorization features of transformational grammar, see Chapter VI below); human into the Individual and Society, etc. Thus, each dictionary ~~structures~~ structures the vocabulary according to the ~~idiosyncratic philosophical pre-conceptions of the author~~ idiosyncratic philosophical pre-conceptions of the author. By virtue of the difference in the criteria applied in the classifications it would be difficult to "equate" the "labels" for the Semantic Markers which we have called Conceptual Field Semantic Markers, in both dictionaries. But if the dictionary were written in only one language, i.e. everything in the dictionary, except the cognate orthographical and phonological words and the translation equivalents, were written, for instance, in English, in a dictionary of cognates in English and Spanish for speakers of English, Semantic Markers from Roget could be attached to readings of cognates both for the Spanish and the English item. Thus the user would have at his disposal a "vast array of near synonyms" (see below) of the cognate item in his own language, and, by using the English labels for the readings of the Spanish items he would be able to place the word within Roget's classification according to the structure of the vocabulary in his own language. It may be argued that the user would then have a biased view of the Spanish

(1) Gili, Barcelona, (1963).

cognate^{item}, but the purpose of including English "Conceptual Field Semantic Markers" is to show how the Congruent, Partially-congruent or Incongruent Spanish cognate lexical item "fits" into the structure of his own language.

A glossary of Conceptual Field Semantic Markers (from the most concrete to the most abstract categories) would be included at the end of the dictionary with the corresponding number which Roget has attached to each reading. (In order to facilitate the looking up of the word in Roget's dictionary).

But there is a point to be noted about conceptual dictionaries. The main claim that is made for them is that they 'enable the user to make a choice from an array of near-synonyms or for finding a word which is 'on the tip of one's tongue' (Waldron, op. cit. p.110), but there is nothing in the dictionary to help the student or user to distinguish between these "near synonyms", i.e. there are no clues for meaning discrimination" (1), and so, as Lyons points out

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- (1) The absence of "clues" for meaning discrimination is a criticism which is also made of bilingual dictionaries. cf. Williams, E.B., "The Problems of Bilingual Lexicography Particularly as Applied to Spanish and English", *Hispanic Review*, XXVII, (1959) pp. 246-53; Ditto, "Analysis of the Problem of Meaning Discrimination in Spanish and English Bilingual Lexicography", *BABEL*, VI-VII, (1960-1), pp. 121-5; Iannucci, J.E., "Meaning Discrimination in Bilingual Dictionaries, a New Lexicographical Technique", *Language Journal*, XLI, (1957), pp. 272-81, and "Meaning Discrimination in Bilingual Dictionaries", in Problems in Lexicography, in *International Journal of American Linguistics*, XXVIII, (1962), pp. 201-16.

(Introduction, p. 447) "the practical utility of reference works such as Roget's Thesaurus depends upon a prior knowledge on the part of the person using them." As such Conceptual Field Semantic Markers will be of use only for advanced students, teachers, and textbook writers. In spite of this we have included this type of Semantic Marker in our practical analysis of the subsets of the "field of education". (See Practical Analysis, Part II).

5.12. To summarize: In this chapter we have discussed the principles of Transformational Grammar which we have adhered to. The transformational conception of a dictionary entry as a triplet, consisting of relevant phonological, syntactic and semantic information has been adopted. Due to the conclusions arrived at after a try out of a componential (via Semantic Markers and Distinguishers) specification of the meaning of cognates, it was decided to use conventional dictionary definitions. The fact that dictionary definitions must perforce include non-cognate items as well as cognate items will influence the choice of the language in which the dictionary will be written (bilingual vs. monolingual). The principle of Semantic Marker has been adopted to specify cultural features (Cultural Semantic Markers) and to bridge the gap between conventional and conceptual dictionaries. (Conceptual Field Semantic Markers).

The first section of the report is devoted to a general survey of the situation in the field of research on the history of the language. The second section is devoted to a survey of the situation in the field of research on the history of the language.

CHAPTER VI

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6. In this chapter we propose to discuss the information from the phonological and the syntactic components which is relevant for a dictionary of cognates.

6.1. Information from the Phonological Component. In Chapter IV we discussed the relevance of similarity of graphic substance for the recognition of cognates. But similarity of graphic substance does not imply similarity of phonic substance. Words in a language are pronounced according to the phonological rules of that language.

The phonological component of an integrated theory of description is only now being developed by transformationalists. (1) No doubt this part of the theory will bring new insights into phonology. But at present and for our practical purpose the most obvious information to be included in a dictionary of cognates is the phonological representation of words. (2) This involves the choice of a system of notation. The system which is used in training colleges of English in Argentina and is therefore familiar to the students, is that worked out by Daniel Jones in which he uses the I.P.A. alphabet. This is the system of notation which will be adopted for English lexical items in the dictionary. The "type" of pronunciation that will be entered will be that known

(1) cf. Postal, P.M., Aspects of Phonological Theory, Harper and Row, (1968); Chomsky, N. and Halle, M., The Sound Pattern of English, Harper and Row, (1968).

(2) The phonological representation to be included in the dictionary does not follow any specific phonological theory but is made at that level of abstraction, (from the pronunciation current in Britain and Buenos Aires), which will provide maximum practical value to the user of the dictionary, i.e. it will follow the degree of "broadness" in transcription adopted by D.Jones in his pronouncing dictionary.

as Received Pronunciation. For Spanish lexical items the system of notation will be according to the phonological system of Porteño Spanish. The phonology of River Plate Spanish has been investigated by several linguists (notably, Malmberg, Alonso, A. and Vidal de Battini) with special reference to Peninsular Spanish, (1) and within River Plate Spanish a comparison of British English and Porteño Spanish has been worked out by Dobel (2). The latter will be used as a working model for the phonological representation of the Spanish cognate lexical items that will be analysed in Part II. Our own pronunciation will be recorded as representative of Standard Porteño Spanish.

A suggestion to be made for the dictionary is that information about the phonological systems of British English and Porteño Spanish could be entered in the introductory section. (see Chapter VIII, 8.3)

6.2. Information from the Syntactic Component. Before entering into the consideration of syntactic features the morphological range and their graphological realizations of cognates in English and Spanish will be discussed.

6.2.1. Graphological and Morphological Rules of Correspondence in English and Spanish. In most works on Cognates in English and Spanish and of Spanish as a foreign language written in English, (3) "rules" for spelling correspondences

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- (1) See also, The Sounds of English and Spanish, Stockwell, R.P. and Bowen, J.D., ^{and Martin, J.W.} Univ. of Chicago Press, (1965).
 - (2) Dobel, A., "The Integration of Phonological Patterns with Vocabulary and Structure in the Early Stages of an English Course for Argentine Students of 15+ Years, (Parts I and II)", Unpublished Dissertation for the Diploma in Applied Linguistics, Edinburgh University, (1960).
 - (3) cf. Ramsey/Spaulding, A Textbook of Modern Spanish, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, (1965); Terry, P.T., Terry's Shortcut to Spanish, Houghton, Mifflin, (1920); Politzer, R.L. & Staubach, C.N. Teaching Spanish, a Linguistic Orientation, Blaisdell, (1965).

of word endings in English and Spanish are found. None of these works to my knowledge, has dealt with the problems of phonological correspondences, with the exception of Ball-Kiernan's dissertation (op. cit.) But what all these writers have ignored is the question of "potential" versus "actual" realizations. (1) According to transformational theory a "rule" must cover all the possibilities for "potential" realization. But from the point of view of this work, given the rule, information about "actual" realizations is vital, because it is related to the "morphological range" (2) of lexical items. This information is necessary to prevent "the formation of false analogies from previously learned morphological derivations" (Stockwell^{The Structure...} p. 266). Lack of information as to actual graphological realizations is what one finds in most works on the subject. The "rules" given are for graphic correspondences of endings in English and Spanish but no "exceptions" (i.e. information about "actual" realizations) are given. In other words, what has happened is that no distinction has ever been made between the existence of graphemes, for instance, {tion} (3) in both languages with "actual" different graphetic realizations in both languages, i.e. English (tion), (sion), Spanish (ción), (sión), (tión).

In Ramsey, for instance, we find: (op.cit. pp. 619-22)

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|-------------------|---|
| i. English (tion) | Spanish (ción), as in condición, nación. |
| ii. English (ble) | Spanish (ble), as in notable, noble, soluble. |

(1) See " 'actual' and 'potential' Phonological Words", Lyons, op. cit. pp. 119-20.

(2) cf. Stockwell et al, The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish Univ. of Chicago Press, (1965), pp. 265-7.

(3) { } enclose graphemes and () enclose graphetic realizations.

iii. English (ance),(ancy)

Spanish (ancia), as in abundancia, repugnancia.

but, cf. the following:

i. English "question"

Spanish "cuestión"

ii. English "able"

Spanish "habil"

iii. English "balance"

Spanish "balance" ; "balanza"

Related to the graphetic realization of graphemes is the problem of morphological rules. Correspondence of morphological endings may be "one to one" as (i.) and (ii) above, and "one to many", e.g.,

master, v.

amaestrar, v.

maestrar, v.

maestrear, v.

maestralizar, v.

where there are different Spanish morphological suffixes. Out of these only "amaestrar" is an actual realization in Porteño Spanish. Both these problems are outside the scope of this thesis but worthwhile mentioning as lexicography would benefit from studies of this kind. In their absence and in the face of the problem of "potential" but "non-actual" graphological words entered in both D.R.A.E. and S.O.E.D., which are not systematically marked "archaic" or "obsolete" (1) the proposal made here is to include a list of "non-actual but found in monolingual dictionaries" cognate words in English and Spanish. These will be entered below the head-morpheme, in alphabetical order within the morphological range but marked "non-actual".

(1) cf. for instance, "professoress" in S.O.E.D.

6.2.2. Syntactic Features. The principle of subcategorization (subclassification of the vocabulary) into syntactic features (1) will only be used in the dictionary of cognates in cases where it is justified. (2) Subcategorization has been included in conventional dictionaries to a greater or lesser degree, but the importance of Chomsky's conception of the principle is the new awareness that lexicographers must have towards linguistic problems related to features. The choice of which features to include in the dictionary depends on the linguistic problems involved. And in some cases these problems will not merely be grammatical. One, for instance, involves conventions of orthographic realization. Let us illustrate this point. Nouns in a dictionary according to transformational grammar are subclassified into (amongst other syntactic features) [+ Proper] or [+ Common.]. Now, all proper nouns in English are written with a capital letter, and, according to the rules of the Grammar of the Spanish Academy, all proper nouns in Spanish ought to be written with a capital letter. (3). But the situation in actual usage is chaotic. For detailed information of cases which the Academy has failed to take into account and for deviations from her own norms in entries in D.R.A.E. we refer the reader to Moliner's entry "mayúscula" in her dictionary. Furthermore, there are cases in which usage (deviant from the norms of the Academy) fluctuates but there are others in which it is well established. cf. for instance what Moliner says about the names of the days of the week, months of the year, seasons,

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- (1) For the theoretical principles underlying syntactic features, system of notation, etc., cf. Chomsky, Topics, and Katz, "Recent Issues"
 - (2) This is another point of departure from Chomsky. For an analysis and criticism of subcategorisation, cf. "Review of Aspects...", Matthews, P.H., *Journal of Linguistics*, III, (1967), pp. 119-52.
 - (3) cf. Gramática de la Lengua Española, Madrid, (1959), Chapter XXXI, pp. 370-2. The Academy give eleven "rules" but as Moliner points out these only cover the "most general cases".

etc., (op. cit. p. 371.)

"Aunque entre los preceptos de la Gramática de la Real Academia figuran el de escribir con mayúscula los nombres de los meses, de los días de la semana y de las estaciones, así como la letra inicial de cada verso en las composiciones poéticas, ha dejado decididamente de usarse la letra mayúscula en uno y otro de los casos." (1)

This marks a difference in orthographical realization (related to the same syntactic feature) and it ought to be specified in the dictionary, i.e. that although a noun in Spanish may be marked [+ Proper], there must be a convention which shows that it is written with a lower-case letter. This may be done by entering all words (in English and Spanish) in the dictionary in lower-case letters except all Proper nouns in English and Proper nouns in Spanish which are (without doubt) written with a capital letter. In cases where usage fluctuates (2) it must also be specified. From a theoretical point of view this example seems trivial, but in lexicography, it is considerations of this sort that have relevance for the ultimate choice of the format of the dictionary.

6.2.3. Category Features. Inherent category features are related to word-classes. In the dictionary each entry will be marked with a category feature. (3) In the lists of cognates taken from

(1) The underlining is ours.

(2) See, for instance, "norte", "sur", "este" and "oeste" in Moliner, op. cit.

(3) This is traditional practice in lexicography.

the Frequency Lists and the Series of Textbooks (see Chapters III and IV), it was found that most cognates (1) belong to four word-classes, viz., noun, adjective, verb and adverb. (2) For the investigation of which syntactic features and syntactic information other than features ought to be taken into account for cognates, these have been grouped into the above word-classes.

There is still another question about category features that must be mentioned here and that is the possibility of the same graphic substance in English and Spanish of being marked with different category features, e.g. English "gas", [+ Noun] and [+ Verb]; Spanish "gas" [+ Noun] (The English verb is translated by "asfixiar con gas") and the possibility of morphological ending correspondences which may be marked differently in both languages, e.g. Spanish "combinado-a"⁽³⁾ [+ Adjective]; "combinado" [+Noun]; English "combined" [+ Adjective]⁽³⁾. These cases ought to be taken into account and entered separately in the dictionary.

6.2.4. Subcategorization Features of Nouns. Nouns in the dictionary will be marked for gender, countability, and, whenever necessary, for number. (see below).

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- (1) There are a few determiners, interjections, etc. which will have different features. But for the purpose of generalization it is convenient to take the four word-classes mentioned above.
 - (2) We are aware of present-day work on word-classes which deviates from our "classification", cf. Lyons, op. cit. and Fillmore, C.J., "The Case for Case" (to be published in the Proceedings of the 1967 Texas Conference of Language Universals, ed. E. Bach and R.J. Harms.)
 - (3) This is a question of a) the same orthographical word in Spanish and English which "realizes" different grammatical words in English and Spanish, and b) morphological correspondences in Spanish and English which "realize" different grammatical words in English and Spanish.

6.2.4.1. Number. The category feature of number in English and Spanish is not generally specified in dictionaries. But in a dictionary of cognates the entry of the plural forms of nouns which have "irregular" plurals (1) would add to the specification of the syntactic information. The rules for Spanish and English plural formation could be included in the introductory section of the dictionary.

6.2.4.2. Number and Countability. The most common manifestation of the category of number is the distinction between "singular" and "plural". This distinction rests upon the recognition of persons, animals and objects which can be enumerated (as "one" or "more than one") and referred to individually or collectively by means of nouns. The category of number is found both in English and Spanish. But the distinction between "one" and "more than one", i.e. "what counts as 'one object' (singular countable noun) and what as 'more than one object' (plural countable noun) 'a group of objects' (collective nouns; countable) (2) or an unindividuated 'mass of material' (non-countable nouns) in the inanimate world at least, is to a considerable degree determined by the lexical structure of particular languages" (3) From the above

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- (1) For the rule for Spanish Plural Formation, see Saporta, S., "Ordered Rules, Dialect Differences and Historical Processes", *Language*, XLI, (1965), pp. 218-24; Foley, J., "Spanish Plural Formation", *Language*, XLIII, (1967), pp. 486-93.
- (2) For collective nouns as a subclass of countable nouns, cf. Iannucci, J.E., Lexical Number in Spanish Nouns with Reference to their English Equivalents, Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, (1952), p. 25 "There is an important fundamental difference between these two types of logical plurals. Those which we have called mass-nouns denote unlimited aggregation; those which we have called collective nouns denote an aggregation or collection with definite limits. The former imply no unit; the latter definitely imply a unit which can be pluralized. In a word, collectives behave exactly the same way as countables, and they should be considered a sub-class of countables."
- (3) Lyons, op. cit. pp. 281-2.

it follows that "the lexical categorization of the world in terms of 'countables', 'collective' and 'mass-nouns' varies considerably from language to language, even when the languages in question do have such syntactically distinct subclasses" (1). And this is the case in English and Spanish. Iannucci, who calls this distinction between countable and non-countable nouns a matter of "lexical number" (2) (to differentiate it from grammatical number), distinguishes several types of disagreement between Spanish and English with respect to countability. He says, (ibid. p. 55)

"The lexical number of a noun may be of any one of three different classes. It may be:

(1) Exclusively a mass-noun:

Sp. harina, plata, maquinaria, etc.

Eng. flour, money, water, etc.

(2) Exclusively a countable:

Sp. jardín, silla, diente, etc.

Eng. bridge, lake, pen, etc.

(3) Both a mass-noun and a countable:

Sp. papel (mucho papel, dos papeles); pan (bastante pan, dos panes); luz (poca luz, dos luces) etc.

Eng. fire (more fire, two fires); hair (enough hair, a short hair); crime (more crime, three crimes)

Thus, the relationship between the lexical number of a Spanish noun and the lexical number of its English equivalent may be

(1) Lyons, op. cit. pp. 281-2.

(2) Iannucci, op. cit. p. 1.

of any one of nine different types, in three of which there is agreement and in six of which there is disagreement:

	<u>Spanish</u>		<u>English</u>
Class I	Mass-noun	vs.	Mass-noun
Class II	Countable	vs.	Countable
Class III	Mass-noun and Countable	vs.	Mass-noun and Countable
Class IV	Countable	vs.	Mass-noun
Class V	Mass-noun	vs.	Countable
Class VI	Mass-noun and Countable	vs.	Countable
Class VII	Countable	vs.	Mass-noun and Countable
Class VIII	Mass-noun and Countable	vs.	Mass-noun
Class IX	Mass-noun	vs.	Mass-noun and Countable.

It must be pointed out that the 'countability' feature of nouns is hardly ever recorded in monolingual dictionaries (an exception in English is Hornby et al's The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (1)) and never (to my knowledge)(2) has it ever been systematically recorded in bilingual dictionaries.

Iannucci's table shows the types of congruence (classes I-III) and incongruence (classes IV-IX) in English and Spanish which is important

(1) O.U.P., first edition, (1948).

(2) On this point see Iannucci, op. cit. pp. 70-2.

for translation equivalence in bilingual (and hence for the dictionary of cognates) dictionaries.

Iannucci's study also shows that Spanish has a much more marked preference for countables than English.

Most of the nouns in both languages fall into the first three classes, and, in general, present no difficulty with respect to "lexical number". In classes IV-IX, "We find the names of things which lend themselves equally well to expression as mass-nouns (non-countable) or as countables, because, on the one hand they can be conceived of as a mass, losing sight of the constituent units, and on the other hand the unit is clearly enough defined to be conceived of as an individual. It is in this broad intermediate zone that cases of disagreement in lexical number are to be found". (ibid.p. 56)

"In classes IV and V there is an absolute difference in lexical number. The type of disagreement represented by classes IV (Sp. countable vs. Eng. mass-noun) is much more frequent than the type of disagreement represented by class V. (Sp. mass vs. English countable noun)" p. 56.

Some examples are:

" Class IV informe - information; jaboncillo - soap
(jabón is used both as a mass-noun and
as a countable, and therefore belongs to
class VIII.)

Class V hojarasca - (fallen) leaf
oleaje - wave
ramaje - branch "

"From class VI-IX," he says, "the disagreement in lexical number is not an absolute one. In these classes we have nouns which function in both ways in one language whilst their equivalents in the other language function in only one way, either exclusively a mass-noun or

exclusively as countables. In Class VI and class VII what is conceived of both as a mass and as an individual in one language is conceived of exclusively as an individual in the other language. This type of disagreement is not very common. Neither of these two classes yields many examples". (p. 59)

Some examples are:

" Class VI pluma - feather
 uva - grape
 tos - cough

Class VII consejo - counsel
 cana - grey hair "

As regards classes VIII and IX, he says, "what is conceived of both as a mass and as an individual in one language is conceived of exclusively as a mass in the other language. Between these two classes there is an extreme disparity. Class VIII (Sp. mass and countable vs. English mass-noun) yields numerous examples while not a single example was found for class IX. Here the greater preference for countables in Spanish is revealed very definitely". (p. 59)

Some examples of class VIII are:

" algodón - cotton
jabón - soap "

Once the importance of subcategorizing nouns with the feature of countability has been acknowledged, there remains the decision of how to express the disparity in both languages in a dictionary entry. In cases of agreement or disagreement the marking is straightforward, it is either

[+ countable] or [+non-countable] The problem arises when a reading of a word may be [+countable] or [+ non-countable], in either or both languages. When this is so the feature will read [+countable/non-countable,] where "/" is to be read as "or". Notice that the feature ought to be included in the translation equivalent whenever there is disparity. In cases where the feature varies in different readings of the same word it must be specified in each reading.

6.2.4.3. Gender. "Although the recognition of gender as a grammatical category is logically independent of any particular semantic association that might be established between the gender of a nouns and the physical or other properties of the persons or objects denoted by that noun, it is a matter of empirical fact that in most languages that have gender (defined as a classification of nouns for pronominal reference or concord) there is some "natural" semantic basis for the classification, This is not necessarily sex. It may be shape, texture, colour, etc. i.e. any set of 'natural' properties. (1) The degree of correspondence between the

(1) cf. for instance, "The Connotations of Gender", Ervin, S.M., Word, XVIII, (1962) pp. 249-61, ff. cf. also, the attitude of the speaker towards inanimate objects (in some cases [+animate + non-human] nouns, too) ship, car, etc. On this point see Catford's treatment of gender in "English Grammar", Mimeographed Notes on Lectures, Edinburgh Univ. (1963). See also, Weinreich, op. cit. and Katz, "Recent Issues", p. 57 ff., where he sustains that this phenomenon is part of Performance and not of Competence, therefore it is not to be contemplated in the theory. The question for us, who are applying some of the principles of the theory with a practical view in mind, is whether the inclusion of features of Performance in any way clarifies the issue. Notice that if this is a feature of performance, it is certainly not a feature present in a single "idiolect" but shared (at least for the above words) by many speakers of English. As it were, this is a "Cultural Feature of Performance" and as such we suggest that it should be included in the dictionary.

the classification of nouns by grammatical gender and a classification of the persons and objects denoted by them according to the relevant 'natural' properties will vary considerably from language to language".(1) These variations in English and Spanish are relevant so that possible means for entering them in the dictionary must be discussed.

6.2.4.4.1. Gender in English and Spanish. The category of gender plays a minor part in the grammar of English by comparison with its role in Spanish. Whilst in Spanish there is gender concord which manifests itself in morphological variations in nouns, adjectives, articles and pronouns, in English there is no gender concord and the reference of the pronouns "he", "she", "it", is very largely determined by what is referred to as "natural" gender which depends upon the classification of persons and objects as male, female or inanimate. Although considerations of "natural" gender are very relevant in Spanish, this criterion for inclusion into grammatical gender is by no means used systematically. It must be noted here that Hispanic-American Spanish has a greater "tendency" towards avoiding conflict between "natural" and "grammatical" gender than Peninsular Spanish. cf. what Kany, American-Spanish Syntax, pp. 5-6, says,

"There seems to be a general tendency in American-Spanish to differentiate natural gender of nouns, adjectives and particles more carefully than in the standard language".

(1) Lyons, op. cit. p. 284.

He gives as examples: *la presidenta* (for *la presidente*)(1), *la dependiente* (for *la dependiente*), *la taquígrafa*, *la ministra*, etc., and adds "these forms are current everywhere, though not always recorded in dictionaries." What we think Kany has in mind is the fact that Hispanic-American Spanish tends to "change" Peninsular Spanish morphological endings when there is conflict between morphology (according to the rules of the Academy) and the syntactic feature of gender. What is needed in the dictionary is the specification in a clear way of the choice of gender in Peninsular Spanish words where the morphological ending does not provide a clue to gender, e.g. *presidente* [+ masc./fem.], or when the morphological ending of the word does not correspond to the usual morphological ending for the gender concerned. e.g. *día* [+ masc.] The Academy, it must be pointed out does this but in a much more complicated way. For instance, for [+Animate + Human] nouns it enters "com." (to be read as "común de dos"), i.e. common gender. But, as we shall see below, it does not take into account this feature for "epicene" gender, i.e. gender of [+Animate + non-human] nouns. For [+non-animate] nouns with gender feature [+masc./fem.], it enters "amb." which is to be read "ambiguous".

The grammatical feature for nouns in Spanish (2) is binary: [Masculine/Feminine]. From the morphological point of view the endings /-o/ [+Masculine]

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- (1) But notice that "*presidenta*" is an "actual" word in Peninsular Sp. and is entered in D.R.A.E. with readings which differ from the Hispanic-American readings. The same is the case with "*ministra*". "*Taquígrafa*", on the other hand, is entered with the same reading as in Hispanic-American.
- (2) cf. *Gramática Española*, ed. de la Real Academia Española, p. 11., "En género neutro se emplean en castellano el adjetivo y el pronombre cuando significan lo genérico y lo abstracto; el artículo en una de sus terminaciones, y rara vez, el sustantivo, adjetivado en cierto modo, como lo príncipe y lo capitán, expresión análoga a la de lo cortés y lo valiente".

and /-a/ [+ Feminine], are in general markers of gender (1) in Spanish but there are innumerable exceptions, e.g. *día*, *albaca*, etc. and many nouns of Greek origin, e.g. *diafragma*, *dilema*, etc. (2) The Academy has several rules for masculine and feminine endings other than /-o/ and /-a/. (For these we refer the reader to the bibliography cited in 1, below) There are many exceptions to these rules but for lexicography this is not a problem as the grammatical gender of nouns is specified (in a different way to what is here proposed) in dictionaries. When this feature varies in Porteño Spanish (as in *presidente* - *presidenta*) it will be recorded in the dictionary. But there is the question of the need to include/within the feature of gender the possibility of choice. For instance, as was said above, the "common" gender in English has its counterpart in Spanish [+Human] nouns that are morphologically invariable, e.g. *mártir*, (*el mártir*, *la mártir*); *joven* (*el joven*, *la joven*) (3) These nouns are marked for gender by concord with articles in their environment, but the syntactic marker entered in the dictionary should show the possibility of choice, i.e. [+masc./fem.] This choice is also present in some [+Non-animate] nouns, for instance, *el calor*, *la calor*; *el mar*, *la mar* (marked amb. "ambiguous" by the Academy) Notice that in the above examples, there is no change of meaning related to difference in

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- (1) See, *Gramática*, de la Real Academia Española, op. cit. pp. 14-18; *Manual de Gramática Española*, Seco, M., Aguilar, Madrid, (1967); p. 16 ff.; *Fisonomía del Idioma Español*, Criado de Val, M. Aguilar, Madrid, (1954), pp. 17-20; *Gramática Castellana*, Alonso, A and Henríquez Ureña, P.I., Losada, Buenos Aires, (1941), pp. 56 ff.
- (2) See "Nombres Femeninos en /-o/" in *Morfología del Español Actual*, in *El Español de Hoy*, Lengua en Ebullición, op. cit.; "On the Expression of Gender in Spanish", Saporta, S., Romance Philology, XV, (1962), pp. 280-4; "The Morphophonemics of Gender in Spanish Nouns", Anderson, J.M., Lingua, X, (1961), pp. 285-96; Casares, J. "Femenismo mal Entendido", *Obras Completas*, vol. III, pp. 302-6.
- (3) Notice how these words are entered in D.R.A.E., "Joven, adj. De poca edad. U.T.C.S." (Used also as a noun) (no specification of gender) "Mártir, com. (común de dos) (common gender) Persona que padece muerte por amor a Jesucristo y en defensa de la verdadera religión".

gender. But there are cases in which a difference in meaning is related to a difference in gender. cf. el corte, la corte; el orden, la orden; el capital, la capital; el parte, la parte. In these cases the gender feature must be entered for each reading of the word. (1)

What is here proposed is that the feature of gender should be treated as a grammatical, binary, i.e. [+masculine/feminine]^{feature}, and entered as such in the dictionary. In the following section we will discuss how the semantic possibility of choice ought to be handled in the dictionary.

6.2.4.4.2. Inclusion of Semantic Markers Related to Natural Gender in Readings of Spanish Words. Certain [+Animate; + Non-human] nouns in Spanish are marked for grammatical gender (either [+masculine] or [+Feminine]) but the word may be used for either the male or the female of the species. (2) The entry in the dictionary for these words in Chomsky's framework contains, as well as the syntactic marker for gender the Semantic Markers (Male)/(Female), to specify the semantic possibility of choice. Practically the same phenomenon is found in nouns in Spanish which retain a residue of "dual" number, as, for instance, "junta", "casal" (which are marked [+Feminine] and [+Masculine] respectively) but in their case the Semantic Markers to be included are not (Male)/(Female) but (Male) and (Female). Notice too, that the noun "padre" [+Human; +Masculine], in the plural, "padres" (connected with the reading ^{MALE} "parent" in the singular) has two readings a) male parents and b) parents (male) and (female) of a child or children of same parents. The second reading must contain as well as the gender feature, the Semantic Markers (Male) and (Female). The same is the case in Spanish with los Condes, los reyes, los marqueses, etc. Now, in a dictionary of cognates, where definitions are used instead of Semantic Markers and Distinguishers, the semantic possibility of choice must be included within the definition itself, i.e. the definition must contain, explicit or implicit semantic markers.

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- (1) Notice that some of these words are in any case different lexical items as they are derived from different roots.
- (2) i.e. there is a clash between "grammatical" and "natural" gender. It must be noted that the Academy enters the grammatical feature of gender but does not mark them "epicene". cf. buho, marked [+Masculine]

6.2.4.4.3. Syntactic Markers for Gender of English Nouns in a Dictionary of Cognates. The question of the relationship between syntactic markers for gender of nouns in English and Semantic Markers (Male)(Female) is still being debated at present. Weinreich, for instance, has questioned Katz's theoretical basis for differentiating between them (op.cit) and Katz (in "Recent Issues") has put forward his reasons for the need to distinguish between Syntactic Features and Semantic Markers and for including both types of markers in readings of words for purposes of entailment, etc. Lyons has taken up the question in "Implications of Congruence in Grammatical and Semantic Classification" (op. cit. pp. 116-9) and has put forward his own suggestion but he says that "any attempt to implement it (his suggestion) would entail a rather radical revision of the formalization of generative grammar as this has been developed by Chomsky and his followers".

For Spanish nouns the feature of gender, it was proposed, was to be used to specify grammatical gender. It was also said, that whenever there were clashes between "grammatical" and "natural" gender, or when once the gender feature had been specified there was still the possibility of a semantic choice this was to be specified within the definitions.

The gender feature for English items will be used for the specification of the possibilities for selection of pronouns, forms of address, (Mr., Miss, Mrs.), etc., i.e. mainly as a "Selection Feature". Indication of the existence of the possibility of semantic choice will also be entered within the definition.

The gender feature for English ^{nouns} is triadic [+Masculine/Feminine/Neuter] as opposed to binary [+Masculine/Feminine] in Spanish. In cases of [+ Non-animate] nouns the feature [+Neuter] will not be included to avoid redundancy, except in cases like "ship", "car", etc., where the marking will read [+Neuter/Feminine]. In cases like "child" the marking will be [+Masculine/Feminine/Neuter], followed by explanations within the definition of the possibility of semantic choice. The same will apply to words like "professor" "lecturer", etc., whose markings will read [+Masculine/Feminine.]

6.3. Augmentative and Diminutive Endings of Spanish Nouns. Nouns (and adjectives too, see op. cit. in footnote 1, below) in Spanish have the possibility of augmentative and diminutive transformations via morphological rules (1). These derivations of nouns (and adjectives) will be entered in the dictionary within the derivational "range" of the head-entry. In some cases the augmentative and/or diminutive derivations have a very definite pejorative sense. This is a very marked characteristic of Spanish, and in this respect too there are differences between Peninsular Spanish and Porten^o Spanish. The label "pejorative" will be used to mark these words.

6.4. Adjectives, Morphological Endings of Spanish Adjectives and Concord with Nouns. From the point of view of morphology, adjectives in Spanish are of three types: a) Those ending in "feminine ending" /-a/, e.g. gorda;⁽²⁾ b) Those ending in "masculine ending" /-o/^{e.g. bueno} and c) Those with any other ending, e.g. amable, ruin, azul, familiar, cortés, soez. The latter may collocate with either [+Masculine] or [+Feminine] nouns. It is common practice in monolingual

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- (1) See, Gooch, A., Diminutive, Augmentative and Pejorative Suffixes in Modern Spanish, Pergamon, Oxford Spanish Series, (1967); Alonso, A., "Para la Lingüística de Nuestro Diminutivo", *Nosotros*, Buenos Aires, (1930); Beinhauer, W., El Español Coloquial, Gredos, Madrid, (1930), (Translated by F. Huarte Morton); Ransom, H.M. "Diminutivos, Aumentativos, Despectivos", *Hispania*, XXXVII, (1954), pp. 406-8; Selva, J.B. "Sufijos Americanos", *Bol. del Inst. Caro y Cuervo*, V, (1949), pp. 192-213; Gramática de la Lengua Española, ed. de la Real Academia Española, op. cit.; Alonso, A. and Henríquez Ureña, H., Gramática Castellana, op. cit.; Castro Pineda, L. Morfología Castellana, (no editor; no date), Lima, Perú; Criado de Val, M., op. cit.; Ramsey/Spaulding, op. cit. and "Description of Noun Suffixes in Colloquial Spanish", Murphy, S.L. in Descriptive Studies in Spanish Grammar, (edited by H. Kahane and A. Pietrangeli), op. cit.
- (2) But notice "belga" where ending /-a/ leads to expect agreement with [+feminine] nouns, but the item may collocate with both [+Masculine] and [+Feminine] nouns. This, again, ought to be specified in the dictionary.

Spanish lexicography to enter adjectives of types(a) and (b) in the following way: bueno-a; alto-a; "invariable" adjectives are entered without indication of the possibilities of collocation. This procedure could be followed in the dictionary of cognates only if this information is specified in the introductory section. Otherwise the "selection restriction" [--N +Masculine/Feminine] (to be read: in the environment of either a [+Masculine] or [+Feminine] noun) should be entered in the entry for each of this type of adjectives.

6.5. Selection Restrictions. Some readings of adjectives in English and Spanish are restricted with respect to the nouns they may collocate with. For instance, "educado-a" [---N. +Animate](1), i.e. "educado-a" can combine in readings of "higher constituents" with [+Animate] nouns. cf. "beautiful" in English when in the environment of a noun [+Human], the noun is marked [-Masculine]. These restrictions are sometimes made explicit in monolingual dictionaries within the definition itself. cf. Moliner's definition of "educado-a"

educado-a Participio adjetivo. Se aplica al que ha recibido educación.

bien educado-a Se aplica al la persona, que, en sus modales y comportamiento social, demuestra haber recibido educación. (2)

(1) Where "---" is to be read: in the environment of.

(2) The underlining is ours.

Once the reading of the word is "chosen" the pre- or post-noun transformation is obligatory. In these cases each of the readings will have an indication of this obligatory transformation in its entry.

Some adjectives in Spanish have a fixed position (either pre- or post-noun) with respect to the noun they collocate with and form with it an "indivisible lexical unit" (See Gili y Gaya, op. cit. p. 221), for example, "puerta falsa", "fuego fatuo", "idea fija", "vida airada", "última pena", "libre albedrío" (1) and they are best entered as single entries in the dictionary.

No indication as to position of an adjective with respect to other adjectives in the Noun Phrase will be entered in the dictionary, mainly because this question is still being debated, but we refer the reader to Stockwell et al, op. cit. and Bolinger, op. cit. p. 291.

6.7. Comparison of Adjectives. This is another point about which there should be information in the introductory section of the dictionary. As regards entries of English adjectives in dictionaries, Bolinger (Aspects (1968), p. 291), says,

- "1. Under adjectives, the question of comparison. Most Standard dictionaries show when an adjective can be compared with -er and -est but fail to show what is to be done with the others. Some as "initial", "seismic" and "annual", do not admit of comparison with more and most; others do. One can only guess from the definitions."

As regards comparison of Spanish adjectives, Seco (Manual de Gramática Española, p. 30) says,

"Resumiendo, pues, resulta que en español solo existen cuatro adjetivos relativos comparativos de superioridad

...

(1) The examples are from Gili y Gaya, op. cit., p. 221.

(mejor, peor, mayor, menor) y, en cierto modo, dos superlativos (maximo y minimo). Las demás relaciones de calidad no se expresan por medios morfológicos. Su estudio, corresponde, por consecuencia, a la Sintaxis. Existe, además, una formación de adjetivos absolutos en -ísimo y -érrimo, de gran interés."

It is common practice in monolingual Spanish lexicography to enter adjectives ("superlative") in /-ísimo/ and /-érrimo/ as separate entries. So these "superlative" adjectives will not create misunderstandings. But there is a tendency for "unlettered" people to accommodate the four adjectives mentioned above (mejor, peor, mayor, menor) to the general "rule" in expressions like "el más mejor" and "el más peor". Kany, in Syntax, (op. cit. p. 49) says, "(these expressions) are now relegated to the unlettered in popular and rustic usage everywhere, both in Spain and in America". Thus the possibility for mistakes through "false analogy" in the comparison of adjectives exists in both languages. Therefore Bolinger's suggestion is considered appropriate and should be incorporated into the dictionary.

6.8. Verbs. It is common practice in lexicography to subcategorize verbs by including its category feature and features of transitivity. As well as the features [+Transitive] and/or [+Intransitive], the [+Reflexive] feature will be included for Spanish verbs which are reflexive in "form" (e.g. arrepentirse, dignarse, quejarse) and for those in which its reflexive use is related to differences in meaning. (1)

As well as these features, indications as to Selection Features, as regards nouns in the Noun Phrase "object of" and "subject of" the verbs in question, will be entered whenever necessary.

It must be mentioned that there are certain developments in transformational grammar research the outcome of which will provide better means for the subcategorization of verbs in lexicography. Some articles written on the subject, for example, "The Case for Case", (op.cit.) by Fillmore

(1) cf. "acomodarse" in Morínigo, Diccionario de Americanismos, "Casarse el hombre sin recursos con mujer rica".

"Case" in Lyons' Introduction... (1) and in particular Corder's article "Double Object Verbs in English" (2) will no doubt provide better means for showing the transformational possibilities of verbs, i.e. the ways in which they may be realized in surface structure.

It must be noted here that there exist two dictionaries, one in Spanish and one in English where verbs are considered from the point of view of their surface structures. They are Hornby's The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (op.cit.) and Cuervo's Diccionario de la Lengua Castellana de Construcción y Régimen. (3)

The dictionary of cognates will distinguish between the different prepositions that may be used with verbs in surface structure, especially in Spanish entries, as the surface realizations of deep structure relationships vary in Peninsular Spanish and in Porteño Spanish. (On this point see Kany, Syntax, pp. 333-74).

6.9. Adverbs. Adverbs found in our research are adverbs of manner, (those ending in /-ly/ in English and in /-mente/ in Spanish) Lyons (op.cit. pp. 326-7) says that most "adverbs of manner in English (and also in certain other languages) are distinct from, but morphologically related to "adjectives" (cf. beautiful-beautifully). Furthermore, they are transformationally related to the corresponding 'adjective' in a variety of parallel constructions: cf. Mary is a beautiful dancer : Mary dances beautifully. Since there would seem to be no possibility of paradigmatic opposition between the 'adverb' of manner and the 'adjective' they are to be regarded as contextually determined variants of the same 'part of speech'. The attachment of the adverbial suffix -ly (in English) to adjectives like beautiful (and in the 'rewriting' of good as well) is to be handled by the rules which convert the deep-structure analysis

(1) Lyons' analysis of verbs is different from Fillmore's approach.

(2) To appear in Studies in English, Poznan.
Paris

(3) Vol. I and II, Roger et Chernoviz,/(1886).

into the surface structure of sentences. Thus, from the point of view of lexicography, when the "meaning" of the adverb is deducible from the adjective^(or Noun) from which it is derived via syntactic transformations there is no need to enter a reading for the adverb. These adverbs will be marked "deducible meaning".(1)

It must be noted that in Spanish, adverbs in /-mente/ are less common than adverbs ending in /-ly/ in English. (For a list of common adverbs ending in /-mente/ see Mc.Williams, R.D. "The Adverb in Colloquial Spanish", (2)) In Spanish the prepositional phrase "con..." is a frequent substitute for these adverbs. (3)

cf. for instance,

He comes frequently	Viene con frecuencia.
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He speaks carefully	Habla con cuidado.
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He listens patiently	Escucha con paciencia.
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Another point to remember is that in Spanish, the same graphological word may be marked either [+Adjective] or [+Adverb] This occurs more frequently in American Spanish. Kany, (op.cit. p 32) says,

"American Spanish has colloquially transformed other adjectives into adverbs, which, in many cases at least, would be considered incorrect in Peninsular Standard Spanish, though some of them may be heard there in popular speech."

He gives as examples: rápido por rápidamente; suave por suavemente; fácil por fácilmente, etc. (all cognates). That is to say that in

(1) cf. Moliner's treatment of verbs in her dictionary.

(2) Edited by Kahane and Pietrangeli, Univ. of Illinois Press, (1954), pp. 73-137.

(3) On this point see Stockwell et al, op.cit. p. 195, from which these examples are taken.

American-Spanish the adverbialization morpheme is[~~p~~.] These last two points are important from the point of view of translation equivalence.

6.10. To summarize: In this chapter we have proposed that a dictionary of cognates should have an Introductory Section in which information as to a) The phonological systems of British English and Porteño Spanish, b) Information about the gender systems and the number systems in both languages, c) Information about the morphology of Spanish nouns and adjectives and d) Information about the comparison of adjectives in both languages, should be included.

As regards the "morphological range" of lexical items it was decided that all "actual" and "non-actual but found in monolingual dictionaries" (the latter to be marked non-actual) derivations of the head-entry were to be included in alphabetical order under the head-item.

The information to be included from the Phonological Component is the phonological representation of cognate lexical items.

Due to the existing incongruencies between the norms of the Academy on the graphological realization of Spanish proper nouns it was suggested that all words in the dictionary, except all proper nouns in English and those proper nouns in Spanish which beyond doubt are written with a capital letter, will be entered with a lower-case letter. When usage fluctuates in Spanish it will be stated.

All entries in the dictionary will be marked with a category or category features.

Nouns will be marked for gender, countability and number (in cases when this is necessary). Information about a) choice of grammatical gender and/or b) semantic choice within a specified grammatical gender will be included.

"pejorative" diminutive and/or augmentative endings of Spanish nouns and adjectives will be marked.

For adjectives the information to be included is a) Pre- or post- noun position of Spanish ^{"qualifying"} adjectives., b) About comparison when 1) the comparison does not follow the general rules, and 2) when adjectives do not admit of comparison, and c) Selection Restrictions as to the gender of the nouns they collocate with.

Verbs will be marked for Transitivity. Spanish verbs will be marked [+Reflexive] a) when they are morphologically reflexive (dignarse, quejarse, etc.) b) readings of verbs will be marked [±reflexive] when such readings are related to differences in meaning. Selection Restrictions as to the features of the Noun Phrase "object of" and/or "subject of" the verb will be entered whenever necessary. Surface Structures with prepositions will be included.

The readings of adverbs of manner whose meaning is deducible will be marked as such. The fact that adverbs in /-mente/ in Spanish are not so common as adverbs in /-ly/ in English, and the fact that in Porteno Spanish some adjectives have an adverbialization morpheme ^[ø] (i.e. "adjectives used as adverbs") should be taken into account for Translation Equivalence.

This chapter will be devoted to (a) a discussion of the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of cognates within lexical fields, and (b) to the relevance of cultural differences for the breaking with the word-for-word translation equivalence tradition in a dictionary of cognates.

7.1. Semantic Congruence and/or Incongruence of Cognates in English and Spanish within Lexical Fields. In our discussion of cul-

tural features it was stated that Cultural Semantic Markers were to be identified, whenever possible, by the comparison of lexical "fields". The comparison of "fields" will yield differences in the reference and differences in paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations (1) of cognates in English and Spanish. What is required of the lexicographer in this respect is an investigation of the way in which the "fields" are structured, (i.e. the way in which the vocabularies are "organised" (a) according to general human interests and values, and (b) according to the way in which particular practices and institutions are reflected in both cultures) and the mapping out of the cognates found in each field.

7.2. Cognates and Lexical Fields. The main problem which arises from the choice of "fields" for analysis and comparison is the relative number of cognates found in

(1) For paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations between lexical items, see Lyons, op. cit., pp. 70 ff. and 428f.

them, i.e. the conclusion arrived at in 5.8 above about the need to take into account non-cognate items is also relevant here. That is to say that if the meaning of cognates within a "field" depends upon reference and upon the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations they enter into with respect to other items in the lexical "field" all items within the "field" whether cognate or non-cognate must be considered. But because of (a) the points of cultural "contact" and (b) the related origin of the languages involved, certain "fields" will have a considerable number of cognates in common. (1)

7.3. Fields and Subsets. For the purpose of the comparison of "sections" of the vocabularies of English and Spanish we will use the term "field" to mean the larger, more inclusive set of vocabulary items. These "fields" or "sets" will be more or less equivalent to the conventional dictionary labels which divide the vocabulary into a Universe of Discourse. These "fields" will then be divided according to relevant dimensions (which may vary from "field" to "field") into smaller sections which we will call "subsets". Thus, for instance, the "field" of Education will be subdivided into "subsets" such as "Persons engaged in Teaching",

(1) For instance, Education, Politics, Government, etc. cf., for example, Nunn, M.E. and del Valle, R. "A List of Engineering Terms in Spanish and English", *Modern Language Journal*, XXX, (1946), pp. 590-3; "Home Economics Terms in Spanish and English", *Modern Language Journal*, XXI, (1947), pp. 489-93; Pottier, B. "Le Langue du Football en Argentine", *Les Langues Néo-Latines*, LXV-LXVIII, (1951-4).

"Persons engaged in learning", "Location where the teaching-learning process takes place", etc. And these subsets will be liable (in some cases) of further subdivision into smaller lexical subsets. In Education, for instance, each of the above mentioned subsets may be further subdivided according to the dimension "Stages in Education" (see Practical Analysis).

The comparison of the fields or sets requires a previous research into background information which will make overt the dimensions which ought to be taken into account. Once the fields are mapped out the cognates in each field may be identified and listed. Previous work along these lines must be carried out if the dictionary is to include cultural differences. It is precisely the lack of information about the reference of items within the lexical subsets and information about relevant syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations that renders existing studies on cognates so subjective and anecdotal.

Two points must be made at this stage. First, not all unambiguous cognates (from the point of view of the number of readings) will "fit" within lexical "fields" and second, that in the case of ambiguous items (i.e. those whose meaning consists of more than one reading) there is a possibility that only some readings will "fit" into lexical fields. These readings will be marked (as in conventional lexicography) with a label stating the vocabulary "set" or "field" (Universe of Discourse label) to which it "belongs".

7.4. Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Relations. The principle that "linguistic units have no validity independently of their paradigmatic and syntagmatic

relations with other units" underlies the theory of structural semantics. Lyons (1) has investigated these relations (which he calls sense-relations) of items within environments (restricted contexts) and contexts (which include relevant situational features). He has developed several principles notably his own about an item "having meaning", (Introd. 9.3.1.ff.) and the relations of synonymy (op. cit. 10.2.1.), antonymy, (10.4), complementarity and converseness (10.4.ff.) hyponymy (10.3.1.ff.) and incompatibility (10.3.5).

The findings of structural semantics may be applied to the investigation of cognates, i.e. the lexicographer may put these principles to use in the investigation of the relations that hold between items in the lexical "fields" and lexical "subsets". It must be stated that relations like synonymy and antonymy are not new in lexicography (2) and that the use of these relations in dictionaries is perforce (to use Lyons' distinction between a looser and a stricter interpretation of the terms), a looser interpretation of these relations. Dictionaries must generalize, i.e. must try to cover, for instance, all cases of synonymy but cannot take into account each and every restricted context of the word in question, and so, more subtle distinctions (for example the distinction that Lyons draws between synonymy, complementarity and converseness (op. cit. p.463ff.)

(1) See Structural Semantics, op. cit. and Introduction, op. cit.

(2) cf. Types of dictionary definitions in Casares, op. cit. pp. 158-61; Moliner, op. cit., Prólogo, and Waldron, op. cit. pp. 55-7.

are not taken into account. (1)

Of all the relations mentioned above, hyponymy was found most useful, and to a discussion of this relationship we turn below.

7.4.1. Hyponymy. Though the notion of hyponymy is not new, for it has long been recognised as one of the constitutive principles in the organization of the vocabulary of all languages, the term "hyponymy" formed (by Lyons) by analogy with "synonymy" and "antonymy", is of recent creation. Hyponymy, which is often referred to as "inclusion" (on this point see Lyons, pp. 453 ff.) is one of the most important paradigmatic relations between words. Lyons himself describes it as "... the "meaning" of scarlet is said to be "included" in the "meaning" of red; the "meaning" of tulip is said to be "included" in the "meaning" of flower." From this it follows that there is in lexical "subsets" a superordinate, more inclusive, less specific term ("flower" and "red" above) and other items ("scarlet" and "tulip" above) called hyponyms, whose meaning is included within the superordinate term. In the Practical Analysis

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- (1) It must be stated too that the use of synonyms in definitions is rejected by Katz on the grounds that it is a "redundancy introduced to save the user the effort of discovering the synonyms of a lexical item by comparing its sense characterizations with those of every other item of the language" (The Structure ... p.185) For our practical purpose the use of cross-reference via synonyms is a useful device, for our aim is to provide the most economic way for presenting differences between cognates. Synonymy, admittedly, is a shortcut towards this aim, but its use is based on the assumption of the user's competence or knowledge of his language which, together with the "universality" of "projection Rules" will enable him to grasp the differences between cognates. See also, Bolinger's criticisms of Katz, op. cit. pp. 565-6.

when analysing the "subset" "Persons concerned with Teaching" and within this "Persons engaged in Teaching", a disparity between English and Spanish was found, Spanish has two superordinate terms: "docente" and "educador", whilst English has only one: "teacher". And within the smaller subsets (according to the dimension "stages of education") more differences were found. The relation of hyponymy is responsible for part of the difference in the "cultural function" of "professor" vs. "profesor". Thus hyponymy was found useful in the previous work to be carried out before the practical analysis.

7.4.1.1. Syntagmatic Modification of a Superordinate Term. The syntagmatic modification of superordinate terms will frequently restrict the more general "meaning" of the superordinate term and will convert it into a co-hyponym. As Lyons says, "It is frequently the case that the situational context or the syntagmatic modification of the superordinate term will determine it in the sense of one of its hyponyms." This situation is implicitly catered for in conventional lexicography by the inclusion of the syntagmatic modification of the superordinate as a separate entry.

For instance,

Master

--- of Arts, etc.

Chancellor

--- of England

--- of the Exchequer

Director

--- cinematográfico

--- de orquesta

--- de escena

--- de escuela.

In the dictionary these readings will be entered separately.

7.5. One-Word Translation Equivalence to Translate Cultural Differences Found in the Comparison of Lexical "Fields" and/or "Subsets".

A consequence of the identification and investigation of the "cultural functions" of items within the lexical "fields" and "subsets" and the inclusion of Cultural Features in the dictionary is the need to break with the word-for-word translation equivalence tradition in bilingual dictionaries. Thus, when seemingly congruent cognates (so considered in bilingual dictionaries) are found to have cultural differences (which may take the form of Cultural Semantic Markers) these differences must be included in the translation equivalence. Thus, the presence of a cultural difference will act as a Translation Equivalence Selector for a translation equivalent other than merely the cognate word, i.e. it will mark a departure from and an enlargement of the word-for-word translation equivalence tradition.

Another point to be noted for translation equivalence is the need to include "dimension discriminators". Take, for instance, the translation of Spanish "profesor" into English:

profesor

professor, lecturer, teacher,
instructor. (Cassell)

As we see above, the practice in bilingual dictionaries is to list translation equivalents without any "clues" for discrimination. (A point noted by Iannucci, in "Meaning Discrimination ... op. cit.") Only labels for the "fields" (or Universe of Discourse) are included in bilingual dictionaries and not really systematically (See Iannucci, op. cit.) The practice to be followed in the dictionary of cognates is that when items have more than one reading, or when within one reading there is more than one translation equivalent, "Dimension Discriminators" (understanding by this labels to mark either "fields", "subsets" or Cultural Semantic Markers are to be included before the translation equivalent. (1)

7.6. To summarize: A lexicographer engaged in the analysis of cognates ought to investigate the "cultural functions" of words within lexical "fields" and "subsets". He ought to exploit the findings of Structural Semantics for the specification of the sense-relations which hold between lexical items, in order to include Semantic Cultural Features in the readings of cognate lexical items. The presence of a cultural feature will act as a Translation Equivalent Selector for a translation equivalent other than the cognate word. Thus, by taking into account cultural features, a dictionary of cognates breaks away from the word-for-word translation equivalence tradition of bilingual dictionaries.

(1) The language (either source or target) in which these discriminators are to be included will be discussed in Chapter VIII.

In this chapter we will put forward proposals about (a) what the Introduction of a dictionary should contain, (b) which language (or languages) the dictionary ought to be written in, (c) the format of the dictionary, (d) whether the dictionary ought to be inclusive or restrictive, (e) the question of head-entries, (f) the question of the inclusion or exclusion of "compound-words" and "idioms," (g) what an entry in the dictionary should contain, (h) the ordering of readings in entries, and (i) the inclusion of labels used in conventional lexicography.

8.1. Bilingual Dictionaries and a Dictionary of Cognates. Aims. It

has been said (1) that the bilingual lexicographer "must have as his unswerving ideal the goal of bringing side by side the words and expressions in the two languages that are equivalent not only in meaning but in usage and caste". The aim of a bilingual dictionary is therefore to provide a word for the "source" language in the "target" language, or, in cases where no such equivalent exists, a definition of the "source" language word in the "target" language. The aim of a dictionary of cognates, on the other hand, as we have stated in the Introduction, has as its aim the codification of all the relevant information from the three components of a linguistic description plus translation equivalence, in order to facilitate the comparison of the components of such information.

(1) Williams, E.B. "The Problems of Bilingual Lexicography Particularly as Applied to Spanish and English", *Hispanic Review*, XXVII, (1959), pp. 246-53, p. 246.

8.2. A Dictionary of Cognates, Monolingual or Bilingual? Dictionaries

which have translation equivalence as their chief aim are bilingual, i.e. they consist of two parts: (a) translation equivalence from the source language into the target language, and (b) translation equivalence from the target language into the source language. But translation equivalence is only one of the components of an entry in a dictionary of cognates (see above) and, as the main aim of our dictionary is the codification of information to enable comparison, it is doubtful whether some of the users will have acquired the necessary competence in the target language to be able to grasp differences. We must also bear in mind that the "circularity of the vocabulary" is a factor for the inclusion in definitions, etc. of non-cognate items as well as cognates. We therefore propose that a dictionary of cognates should not follow the traditional bipartite division of bilingual dictionaries but should be directed towards either speakers of Spanish or speakers of English. In this case everything in the dictionary with the exception of the entries themselves (orthographical and phonological words) and translation equivalent(s) should be entered in English if the dictionary is intended for speakers of English, and in Spanish if the dictionary is intended for speakers of Spanish. (1)

(1) cf. what Williams says about bilingual lexicography: "It would seem clear that all definitions, particularizing words and phrases, synonyms, subject labels, and explanatory matter, used for purposes of discrimination in the English-Spanish part should be given in English." op. cit. p.251. See also Iannucci "Meaning ..." , Modern Language Journal, XLI, (1957), pp.272-81.

8.3. The Introduction of a Dictionary of Cognates. What it should Contain. It is here proposed that the dictionary should have an Introductory ~~section~~ in which the following will be included:

- a) Definition of Cognateness.
- b) A statement about the Phonological, Syntactic and Semantic theories on which the codified data of the dictionary is based (as mentioned in Chapter VI in particular).
- c) A description of relevant systems (phonological; rules for plural formation, etc.) in Spanish and English.
- d) A definition of "compound-word" and the criteria for inclusion of "compound-words" in the dictionary.
- e) The "type" of "idioms" which will be included and any relevant data about them.

It must be noted that there exists in Spanish a dictionary with an Introduction similar to the one proposed. (Seco, M. Diccionario de Dudas de la Lengua Española.)

8.4. Format of the Dictionary. According to the aim of the dictionary the information is to be presented in such a way that it will aid the user in the comparison of cognates. Out of the two possibilities: (a) to present the information about the English cognate (or Spanish (2)) first, and below

(1) According to the language chosen.

the information about the cognate lexical item in the target language, and (b) to present the information ~~about~~ the target language cognate lexical item alongside that of the source language cognate lexical item, we propose the latter as the more adequate to our purpose. Thus, a page in the dictionary will be divided into two halves (vertically), the left hand side will be reserved for information about the source language cognate, and the right hand side for information about the target language cognate. (1)

8.5. A Dictionary of Cognates, Inclusive or Restrictive? As was said in

4.6. above, we consider that similarity of graphic substance is a crucial criterion for inclusion of cognates in the dictionary. Within this criterion the question whether or not to include all cognates in English and Spanish similar in graphic substance, or only those found in language teaching situations, will ultimately be dictated by who the dictionary is intended for and by the size of the dictionary itself. What must be remembered is that, no matter what the final decision is, the investigation of cultural differences will perforce include all lexical items, whether cognate or not, in the vocabularies concerned (and therefore all cognates). In the practical analysis it was found that once the mapping out of the subsets was carried out and the cognates listed

(1) This proposal breaks away from the format of conventional bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. For a non-conventional format in bilingual dictionaries see Bellows, N., Dictionary of French and English, English and French, and other dictionaries of the series, Longmans, (1916).

not all of these were either included in the Series of Textbooks which was analysed nor were they all included in the frequency lists. (1) Another possibility for the choice of which items to include in the dictionary would be to identify lexical fields which are included in textbooks and analyse them exhaustively so that the dictionary will be "inclusive" within lexical field restrictions.

8.6. The Question of Head-entries. In the practical analysis orthographical words which were found in the subsets investigated were entered as head-entries. But our proposal for a dictionary of cognates is that the head-entries should be the cognate root-morphemes (entered in alphabetical order) and the sub-entries should be all the "actual" and "potential but non-actual found in monolingual dictionaries" orthographical words entered in alphabetical order and indented from the head-entry.

8.7. The Question of the Inclusion or Exclusion of "Compound-words" and "Idioms." Although in the practical analysis only a few "compound-words" and no "idioms" were considered, we propose that a dictionary of cognates should include information

(1) For the purpose of checking this point the convention of marking the items found in the series with the symbol /x/ was adopted. We have also included the frequency indexes found in Juilland and West. See Introduction to practical analysis.

about them. (1) Although "compound-words" are not so common in Spanish as in English, they exist and provide interesting cases of cultural differences between Porteño Spanish and Peninsular Spanish. And again "idioms" are another source of cultural differences. (2) Two points are important for the inclusion of "compound-words" in the dictionary: (a) what to consider a "compound-word", and (b) which "compound-words" to enter in the dictionary. As regards the first point the lexicographer should choose and apply systematically a set of criteria for their definition. (3) The second point demands the decision of including only "compound-words" formed by two cognate "components" or with only one "cognate component".

8.8. What an Entry in the Dictionary Should Contain. According to the conclusions arrived at from the relevant features for the lexicographical treatment of cognate lexical items an entry in the dictionary of cognates is seen as composed of:

-
- (1) Both Williams and Iannucci advocate the inclusion of idioms in bilingual dictionaries.
 - (2) For Compound-words and idioms see Casares, op. cit. Chapter IV, pp. 92-100; see also Abraham, R.D. "Fixed Order of Coordinates, A Study in Comparative Lexicography", *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV, (1950), pp. 276-87. Rosenblat, A. "El género de los compuestos", *Nueva Revista de Filología Hispánica*, VII, (1953), pp. 95-112; Selva, J.B. *Modismos Argentinos*, *Bol. de la Acad. Arg. de Letras*, XVII, (1948), pp. 226-94; Caballero, R., Diccionario de Modismos de la Lengua Castellana, El Ateneo, Bs.As. (1942).
 - (3) cf. Casares' opinions as regards this point in op. cit. Chap. IV. See also Marchand, H., The Categories and Types of Present-Day English Word-Formation, Harrassowitz, Wiesbaden, (1960), Chap. II.

AN ENTRY IN THE DICTIONARY OF COGNATES

- | | |
|--|---|
| a) Orthographical Words. | Cognate Root-Morphemes.
Cognate Words.
Cognate "Compound-Words".
"Idioms" containing the Cognate Head-Word. |
| b) Information from the Phonological Component | Phonological Words. (phonological representation of the orthographical cognate words, "compound-words", etc.) |
| c) Information from the Syntactic Component | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Category Features. 2. Subcategorization Features (whenever necessary). 3. Information about the "morphological range" (including information about "actual" and "non-actual" words) of the Cognate Root-Morphemes. 4. Information about Nouns: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) Subcategorization Features for Gender, Countability and Number (whenever necessary.) Any other relevant information connected with these features. b) "Pejorative" endings of nouns to be marked. <p>Information about Adjectives:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) In Spanish items, information about morphological endings and concord with nouns. b) Selection Restrictions regarding the features of nouns they may collocate with. c) Position of "Qualifying" Adjectives in Spanish. d) Information about "irregular" comparisons. e) "Pejorative" endings of adjectives to be marked. |

Information about Verbs:

- a) Feature of Transitivity.
- b) In Spanish Verbs, feature: [+Reflexive].
- c) Selection restrictions as to the N.P. "object of" and "subject of".
- d) Surface structures with prepositions.

Information about Adverbs:

No reading to be included where the meaning is deducible.

- d) Information from the Semantic Component.
 - 1. Readings. (Seen as definitions in conventional lexicography).
 - 2. Cultural Semantic Markers.
 - 3. Conceptual Field Semantic Markers.
 - 4. Labels to mark lexical "field" or "subset".
 - 5. Other useful labels in conventional Lexicography. (see below)
- e) Translation Equivalence Not necessarily word-for-word. In some cases a Translation Definition (see practical analysis). When necessary it will include "dimension discriminators".

8.9. Ordering of Readings in Entries. In monolingual dictionaries readings of words are ordered according to either "historical" or "logical" or "genetic" or "frequency" criteria. (1) But in a dictionary of cognates we propose that readings should be ordered according to congruence, i.e. the readings ought to be ordered so as to enter congruent readings first. In such a way incongruence in (a) number of readings, and (b) con-

(1) See Casares, op. cit. p. 67

gruence, partial congruence and incongruence of reference, and (c) congruence or incongruence of "grammatical realizations" of the orthographical words will be evident.

8.10. Inclusion of Conventional Labels. Certain labels in common use in lexicography ought to be included in the dictionary, for instance "rare", for there is disparity between cognate lexical items in English and Spanish in this respect. The disparity is not only related to frequency but also to "Range of Usage" (as understood by Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez). Other labels to be included are "formal" and "informal" (referring to "style"), "figurative", etc. For the sake of uniformity, labels will comply with those used in S.O.E.D.

8.11. To summarize: In this chapter it was proposed that a dictionary of cognates should have an Introductory Section where all relevant theoretical information will be provided. The dictionary should be monolingual. The format should allow for both Spanish and English lexical items to be placed side by side in order to allow comparison. The question of whether the dictionary is to be inclusive or restrictive is left open and will be dictated by how much space is available, and the aim(s) of the dictionary. The head-entries should be cognate root-morphemes. All "actual" and "non-actual but found in monolingual dictionaries" derivations are to be entered in alphabetical order indented from the head-items. It was suggested that "compound-words" and "idioms" should be included. Each entry should contain all relevant information from the three components. Readings of items must be ordered according to "congruence". Useful conventional "labels" will be included.

CHAPTER II

P A R T I I

9. This section consists of an attempt to map out some of the "lexical subsets" in the "Field of Education" as structured in Britain and Argentina with a view to the identification and listing of cognate lexical items which will later be "analysed".

It must be noted that the choice of "dimensions" for the comparison of the background information is subjective insofar as the latter was compiled from available reference books as well as from consultation with native speakers of both languages and from teaching experience in Argentina. But it is justified on the grounds that no socio-linguistic comparison of the field exists. Introspection will be avoided as far as possible, though, as Lyons says, (op. cit. p. 458) "At the present time semantic theory can do little more than appeal to the bilingual speaker for intuitive judgements of equivalence in the area of 'cultural overlap' ".

9.1. Background Information. The information about the organization of Education in Britain and Argentina was taken from:

Britain, an Official Handbook, 1968, Prepared by the Central Office of Information, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London, (1968).

Edinburgh University Calendar, 1966-7, Published for the University by J.Thin, Edinburgh, (1966).

El Simposio de Cartagena, Informes y Comunicaciones,

Inst. Caro y Cuervo, Bogotá, 1965.

Guía del Estudiante, 1966-7, Published by the Departamento
de Orientación Vocacional, Buenos
Aires, 1966.

The Scottish Educational System, Hunter, S.L., Pergamon
(1968).

University Choice, ed. Boehm, K., Pelican, London, (1966).

An important point to remember is that Great Britain is really four countries in one, viz. England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales, so there will be differences between these countries as well as differences with Argentina. The information has been grouped under the following headings:

- a) Compulsory Education.
- b) Stages in Education.
- c) Public and Private (Independent in Britain) Education.
- d) Fees.
- e) Co-educational or mixed schools.
- f) Educational Administration of Primary and Secondary Schools.
- g) School Hours.
- h) Nursery Schools in Britain and Enseñanza Pre-escolar in Argentina.
- i) Primary Schools.
- j) Secondary Schools.

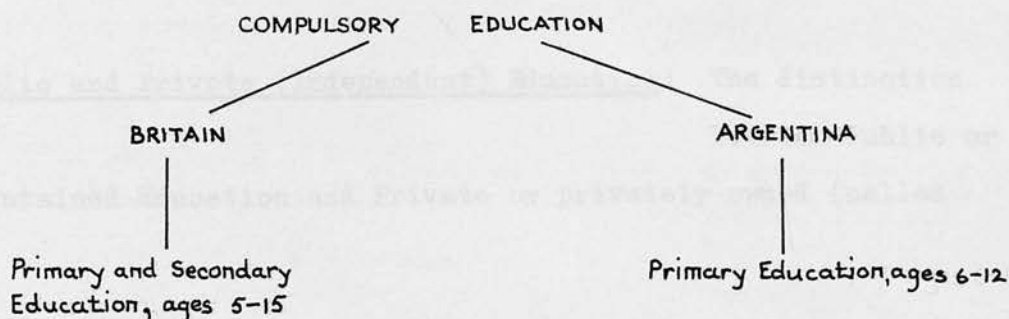
k) Special Educational Treatment.

h) Higher Education in Britain and Enseñanza Superior in Argentina.

1. Technical Colleges, Business and Secretarial Colleges and other Further Education Establishments.
2. Adult Education.
3. Universities.
4. Colleges of Education.

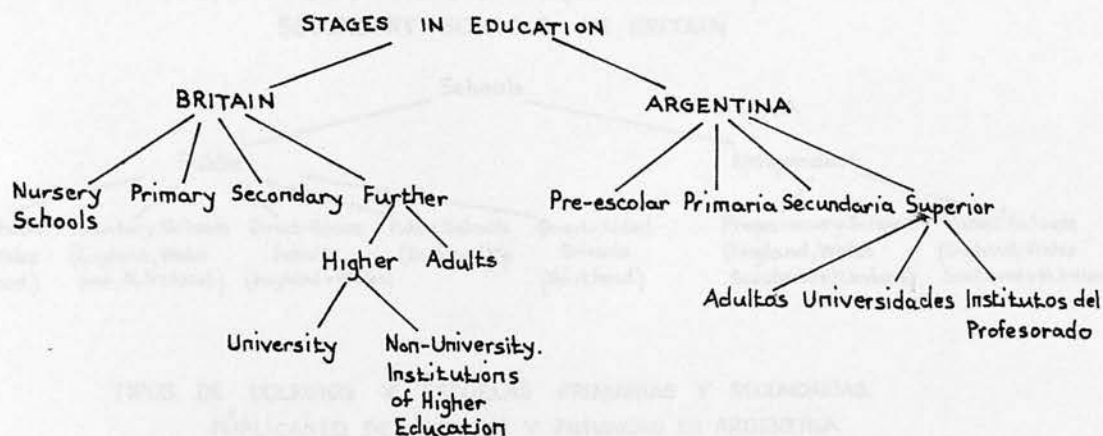
9.2. Compulsory Education. There is a longer compulsory term in Britain, (between the ages of 5-15), covering both Primary and Secondary Education, as opposed to only Primary Education (between the ages of 6-12) in Argentina.

Graphically:



9.3. Stages in Education. The stages in Education in Britain and Argentina are four. One point to notice is that in Spanish the item "enseñanza" is preferred to "educación" when it collocates with the different stages, e.g. enseñanza pre-escolar, enseñanza primaria, etc. (1)

Graphically:



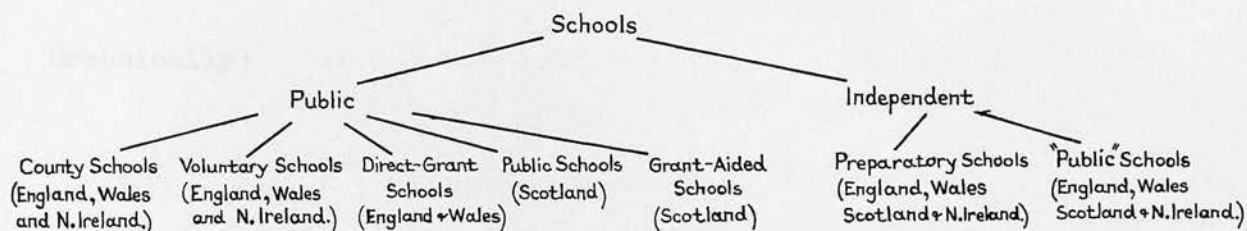
9.4. Public and Private (Independent) Education: The distinction between Public or State maintained Education and Private or privately owned (called

(1) The use of "educación", meaning "systematic instruction" is a Porteño Spanish Anglicism. See analysis of Education ↔ Educación.

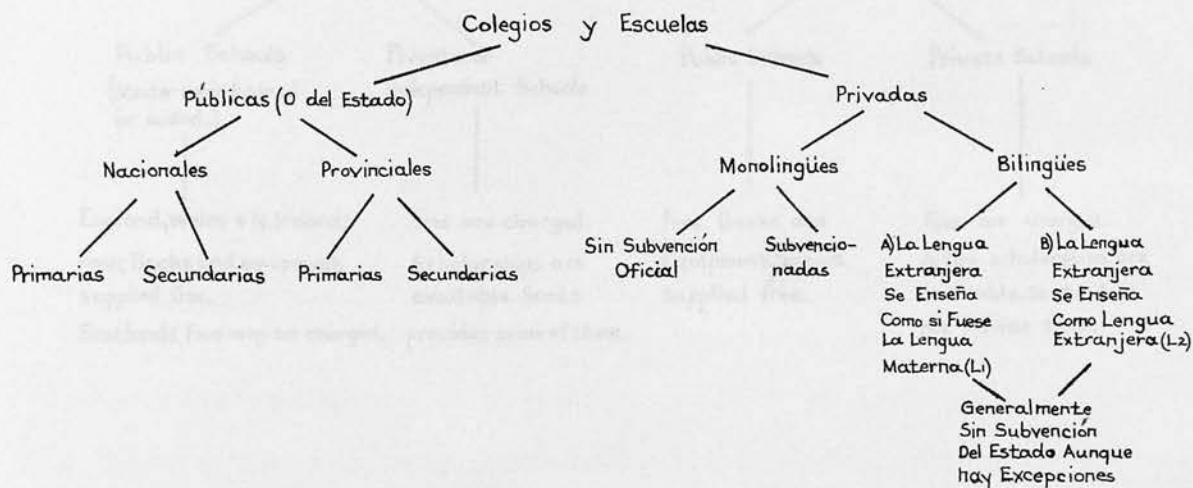
Independent in Britain) Education exists both in Britain and in Argentina. The main difference from the point of view of Cognates is the use of "public" in England (1) for privately owned schools. Another difference is the type of schools both in Public and in Private (Independent) Education as outlined below.

Graphically:

TYPES OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE (INDEPENDENT) PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN BRITAIN



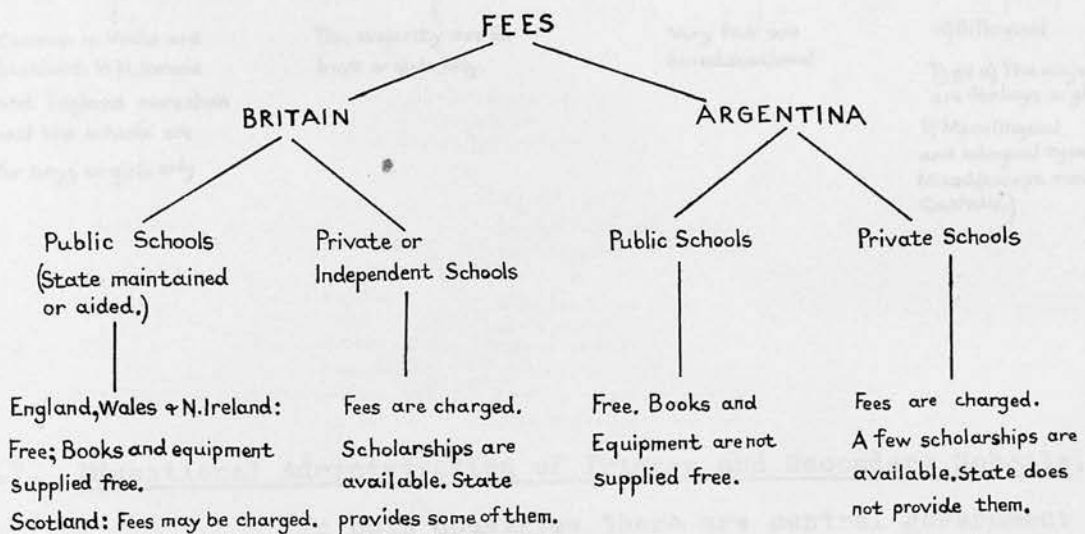
TIPOS DE COLEGIOS Y ESCUELAS PRIMARIAS Y SECUNDARIAS, PÚBLICAS (O DEL ESTADO) Y PRIVADAS EN ARGENTINA



(1) There are some "public" schools of this type in Scotland and in Northern Ireland, but "public" is mainly used in Scotland for State maintained schools.

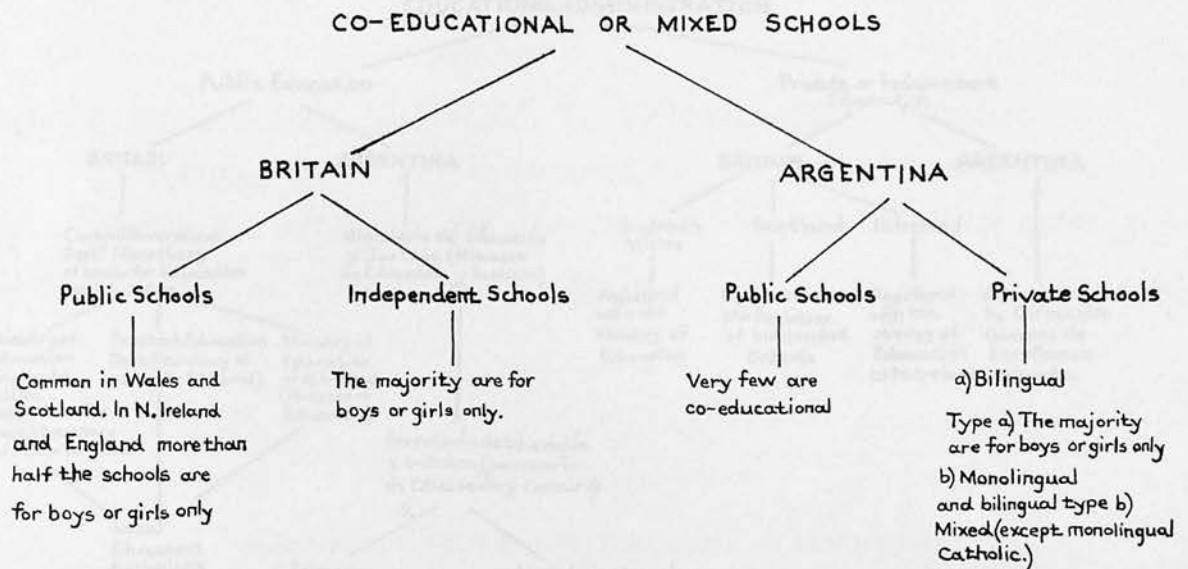
9.5. Fees. In England and Wales fees are not charged to parents of children who attend schools maintained by local authorities and equipment and books are supplied free. In Scotland fees may be charged in State maintained schools. In Public schools in Argentina fees are not charged but books and equipment are not supplied free. Fees are charged in Private (or Independent) schools in both countries. One outstanding difference is that in Britain the State provides scholarships in Independent Schools whilst this is not the case in Argentina.

Graphically:



9.6. Co-educational or Mixed Schools. The main difference is that co-educational Public schools in Argentina are rare. The situation in Private schools varies.

Graphically:

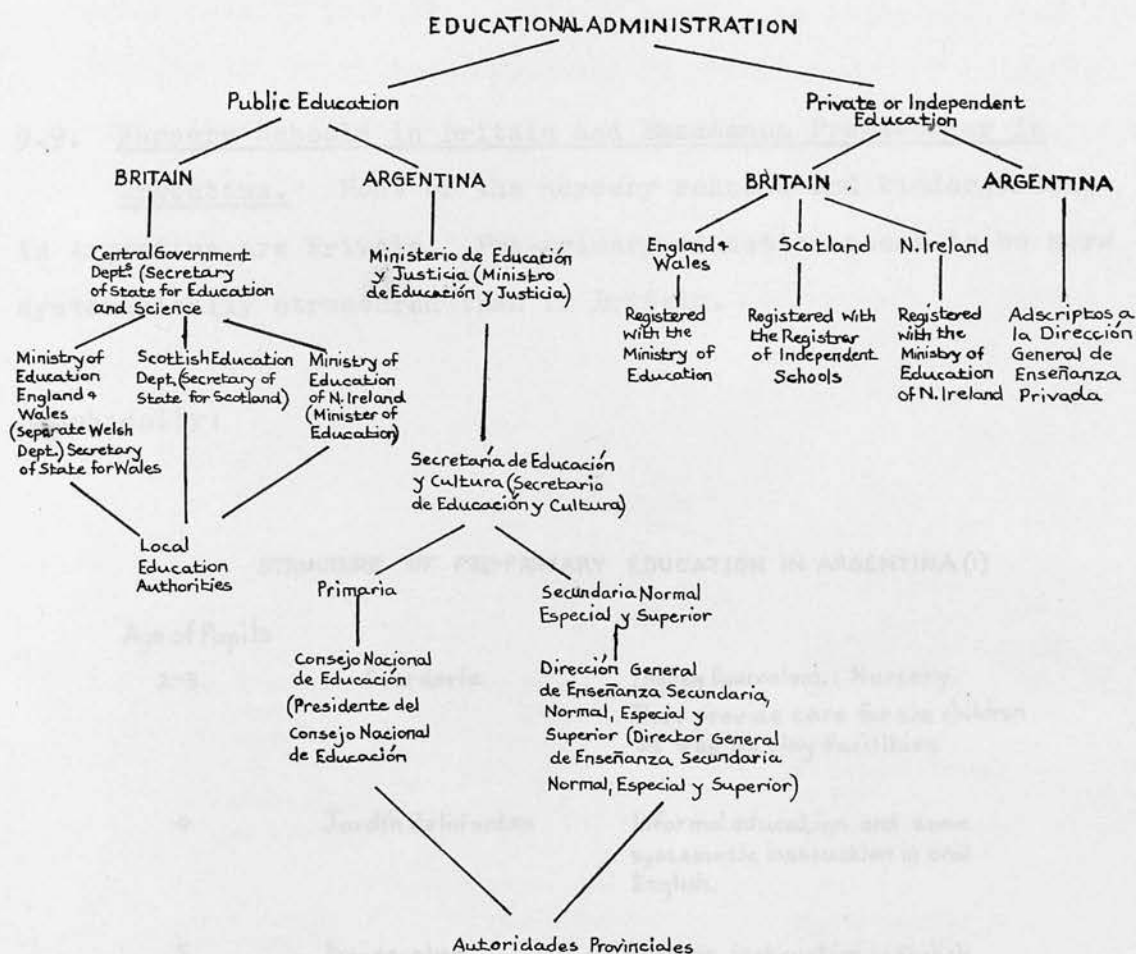


9.7. Educational Administration of Primary and Secondary Schools.

In both countries there are central government departments in charge of Education, as well as local authorities. In Britain there is more freedom for the planning of curricula and the choice of methods. In Argentina curricula are planned by

the National Ministry of Education and are compulsory in all (Public and Private) schools throughout the country. Private schools in Argentina are strictly supervised and controlled by the Dirección General de Enseñanza Privada.

Graphically:



9.8. School Hours. Public State schools in Argentina and some monolingual Private schools function either in the morning or in the afternoon, thus British schools have longer working hours. Private Bilingual schools in Argentina have longer hours and function both in the morning and in the afternoon. The morning is devoted to the compulsory Spanish curriculum and the afternoon to the foreign language taught.

9.9. Nursery Schools in Britain and Enseñanza Pre-escolar in Argentina. Most of the nursery schools and kindergardens in Argentina are Private. Pre-primary education seems to be more systematically structured than in Britain.

Graphically:

STRUCTURE OF PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ARGENTINA (1)

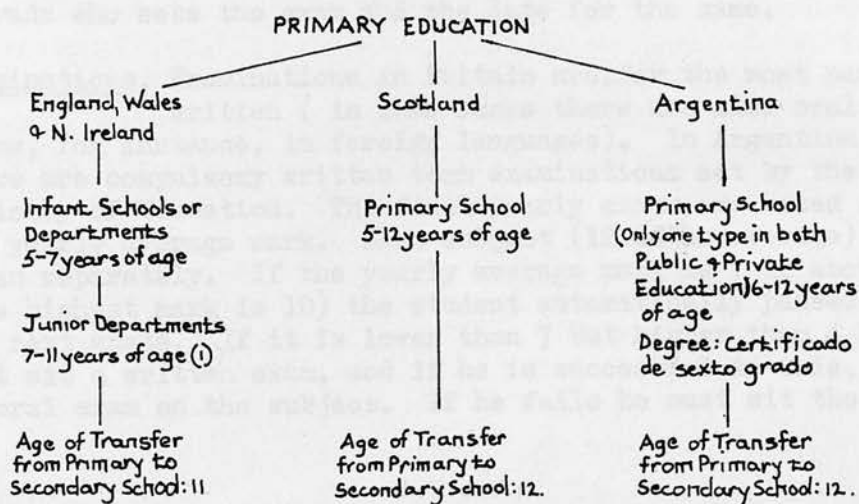
Age of Pupils

2-3	Guardería	English Equivalent: Nursery They provide care for the children as well as play facilities
4	Jardín de Infantes	Informal education and some systematic instruction in oral English.
5	Pre-escolar	Further instruction in English. Rudimentary instruction in Reading & Writing. (Mainly recognition of letters and numbers.)

(1) Two Private schools in Buenos Aires have been taken as models, viz., Pilgrims' College and Instituto Bayard.

9.10. Primary Schools. There is only one type of Primary school in Argentina (in both Public and Private Education) as opposed to several types in Britain. (See diagram below.) The curriculum for Spanish is planned by the Ministry of Education and is compulsory for all schools both Public and Private as opposed to Britain where the planning of the curriculum and choice of method rests with the school itself or with the Head-teacher. A certificate is granted in Primary schools in Argentina, the "Certificado de Sexto Grado." The age of transfer from Primary to Secondary education varies, viz. 11 for England, Wales and Northern Ireland and 12 in Scotland. Argentina coincides with Scotland in this respect. The age of entry to Primary schools is 5 in Great Britain and 6 in Argentina.

Graphically:



-
- (1) Preparatory schools (one of the types of Independent schools in Great Britain) cover part of Primary and part of Secondary School. Ages: 8-13.

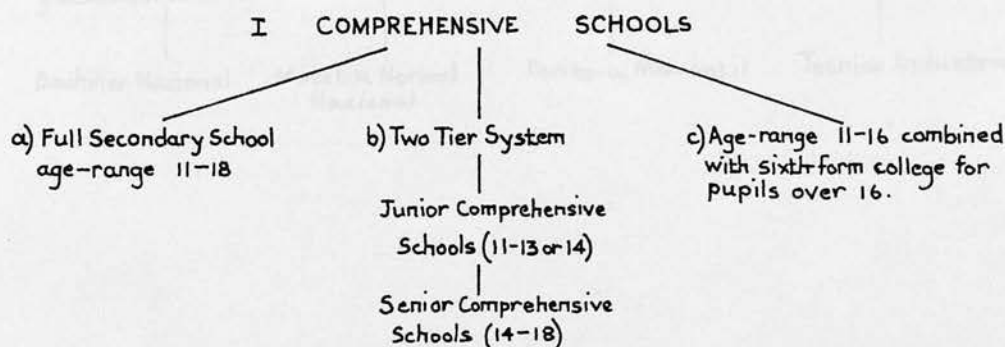
9.11. Secondary Schools. The organisation of Secondary Education in Britain and Argentina differs along several lines as follows:

- a) Curriculum. In Britain there is much more freedom for the planning of the curriculum and it is generally left to the schools themselves or to the Head-teacher. In Argentina the curriculum planned by the Ministry of Education is compulsory in all Public and Private schools throughout the country.
- b) System. One separatist system with three years in common for the four types of Secondary schools in Argentina as opposed to the Comprehensive and Separatist systems in Britain.
- c) Types of Schools. There are four types of schools in Argentina as against more types in Britain. (See diagram).
- d) Entrance Exams. According to the Separatist system in Britain, children are allocated to different types of Secondary schools according to the results of the "eleven plus" examination. In Argentina there is a compulsory entrance examination in all Public and Private schools. The Ministry of Education sets the exam and the date for it which again is compulsory throughout the country. Private Secondary Schools are controlled by the Dirección General de Enseñanza Privada who sets the exam and the date for the same.
- e) Examinations. Examinations in Britain are, for the most part, written (in some cases there are also oral exams, for instance, in foreign languages). In Argentina there are compulsory written term examinations set by the Ministry of Education. The final yearly exams are based on the yearly average mark. Each subject (12 as an average) is taken separately. If the yearly average mark is 7 or above (the highest mark is 10) the student automatically passes to the next grade. If it is lower than 7 but higher than 4 he must sit a written exam, and if he is successful in this, an oral exam on the subject. If he fails he must sit the

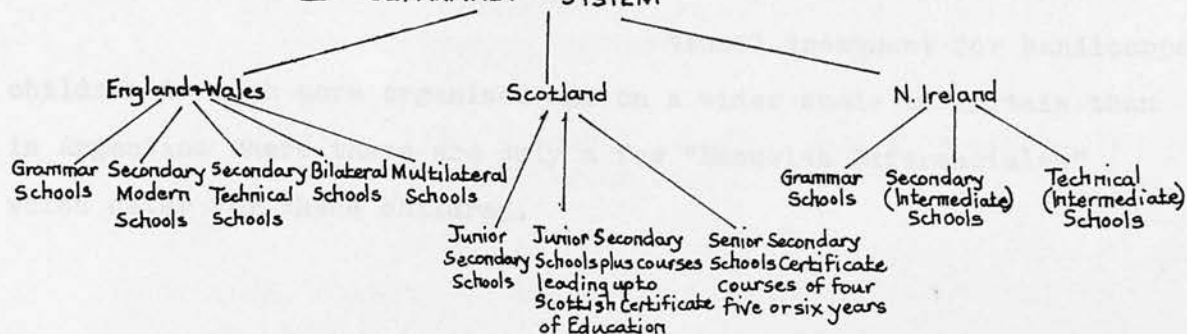
exam again just before the start of the next Academic year. If the student's average mark is lower than 4 he is not allowed to sit the exam until the beginning of the next Academic year. The student is allowed to fail two subjects which he must pass at the end of the following year. If he fails to do so he must repeat the year. In schools affiliated to the University students are not allowed to repeat grades and should they fail to pass the examinations they are automatically out of the school. The exams on the different subjects are set by a board of teachers from the schools concerned. From the above we see that in Argentina exams are both oral and written.

- f) Degrees. In England and Wales there is no national leaving school examination, but Secondary school pupils may take the General Certificate of Education (GCE) or the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE). In Scotland courses in Senior Secondary schools lead to examinations conducted by the Scottish Certificate of Education Examination Board. School pupils in the fourth year of secondary courses sit an examination at 16 for the award of passes on the Ordinary Grade, and pupils in the fifth year can obtain passes on the Higher Grade of the Scottish Certificate of Education. In Northern Ireland candidates may take the Junior Certificate Examination at about the age of 15, and the Northern Ireland General Certificate of Education at about the age of 17. In Argentina degrees vary according to the type of secondary school. (See diagram).

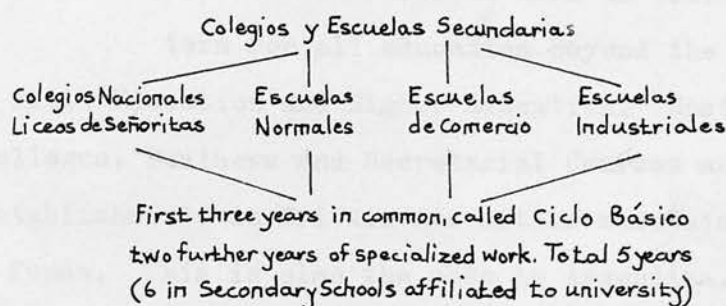
Graphically:



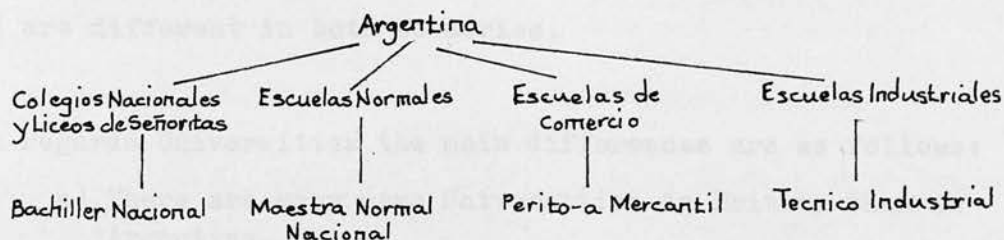
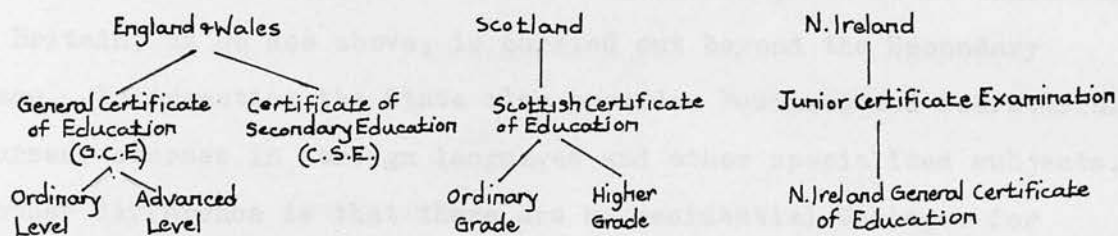
II SEPARATIST SYSTEM



SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ARGENTINA



SECONDARY CERTIFICATES



9.12. Special Educational Treatment. The system of special educational treatment for handicapped children is much more organised and on a wider scale in Britain than in Argentina where there are only a few "Escuelas Diferenciales" which cater for these children.

9.13. Higher Education in Britain and Enseñanza Superior in Argentina.

Further Education is used in Britain as a cover term for all education beyond the Secondary stage; It includes Adult Education and Higher Education. Most of the Technical Colleges, Business and Secretarial Courses and other further education establishments in Britain are either maintained or aided from public funds. This is also the case in Argentina. One important difference is that there exist establishments for the Primary and Secondary education of adults, which establishes a difference in the level of education between the two countries, for adult education in Britain, as we see above, is carried out beyond the Secondary stage. In Argentina the State also provides Business and Secretarial Courses, courses in foreign languages and other specialized subjects. Another difference is that there are no residential Colleges for adults in Argentina. Furthermore, the types of courses and degrees offered are different in both countries.

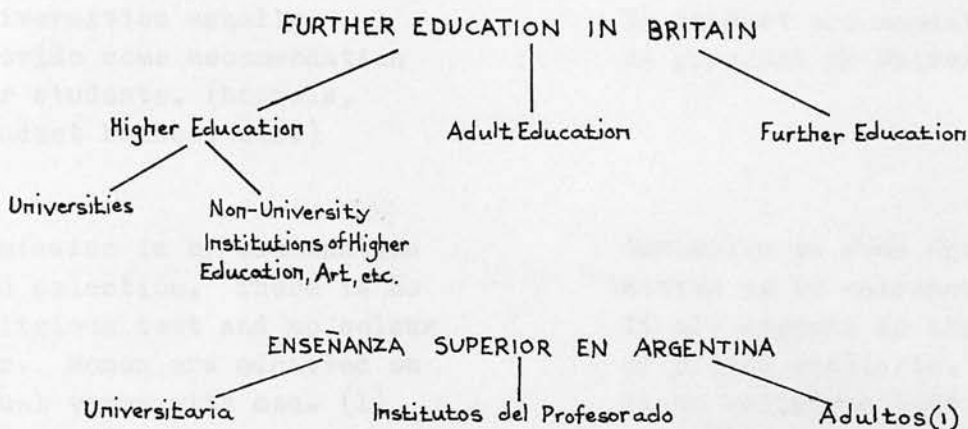
As regards Universities the main differences are as follows:

- a) There are many more Universities in Britain than in Argentina.

- b) There are Public and Private Universities in Argentina.
- c) There are no residential (i.e. where accommodation is provided by the University itself. e.g. hostels and student houses) Universities in Argentina.
- d) The organisation of Universities differs along various lines, viz., entrance examinations, government, teaching-staff, courses and degrees. (see next page.)

As regards Colleges of Education, they differ in admission, duration of the course, government and administration. (see below).

Graphically:



UNIVERSITIES

BRITAIN

- a) Many more. Total number: 43
- b) Though universities are autonomous they are all aided by public funds.
- c) There are some Residential Universities

ARGENTINA

- a) Fewer. Total number: 22
- b) There are Private (Privately owned) and Public Universities. Of these some are National and others are Provincial.
- c) No Residential Universities

(1) Adult Education, though not equivalent to British Adult Education is included under Enseñanza Superior for convenience sake.

Differences in Universities:

Britain

a) Many more. Total number: 43

b) Though Universities are autonomous they are all aided by public funds.

c) Universities usually provide some accommodation for students. (hostels, student houses, etc.)

d) Admission is by examination and selection. There is no religious test and no colour bar. Women are admitted on equal terms with men. (1)

e) University teaching combines lectures, practical classes (in scientific subjects) and small group teaching either seminars or tutorials, the last being a traditional feature of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

Argentina

Fewer. Total number: 22.

There are Private (privately owned) and Public (State) Universities. Of these some are National and others are Provincial.

No student accommodation is provided by Universities.

Admission to some Universities is by entrance exam. It all depends on the number of places available. There is no religious test and no colour bar. Women are admitted on equal terms with men.

There are no tutorials.

(1) Except at Cambridge where their numbers are limited by statute.

f) Faculties. (1)

Divinity
Law
Medicine
Arts
Science
Music
Social Sciences
Veterinary Medicine

Agronomía y Veterinaria
Arquitectura y Urbanismo
Ciencias Económicas
Ciencias Exactas y Naturales
Ciencias Médicas
Derecho y Ciencias Sociales
Farmacia y Bioquímica
Filosofía y Letras
Ingeniería
Odontología

g) Degrees.

<u>All Faculties</u>	Doctor of Philosophy	(Ph.D.)
<u>Divinity</u>	Bachelor of Divinity	(B.D.)
<u>Law</u>	Bachelor of Laws	(LL.B.)
	Doctor of Laws	(LL.D.)
<u>Medicine</u>	Bachelor of Medicine +	(M.B., Ch.B.)
	Bachelor of Surgery	
	Bachelor of Dental Surgery	(B.D.S.)
	Master of Surgery	(Ch.M.)
	Doctor of Medicine	(M.D.)
	Master of Dental Surgery	(M.D.S.)
<u>Arts</u>	Master of Arts	(M.A.)
	Master of Letters	(M.Litt.)
	Doctor of Letters	(D.Litt.)
<u>Social Sciences</u>	Bachelor of Commerce	(B.Com.)
	Bachelor of Education	(B.Ed.)
	Bachelor of Architecture	(B.Arch.)
	Master of Architecture	(M.Arch.)
<u>Science</u>	Bachelor of Science	(B.Sc.)
	Master of Science	(M.Sc.)
	Doctor of Science	(D.Sc.)
<u>Music</u>	Bachelor of Music	(B.Mus.)
	Doctor of Music	(D.Mus.)
<u>Veterinary Medicine</u>	Bachelor of Veterinary	
	Medicine + Surgery	(B.V.M.+S.)
	Doctor of Veterinary	
	Medicine + Surgery	(D.V.M.+S.)

<u>Agronomía y Veterinaria</u>	Ingeniero Agrónomo Veterinario
<u>Arquitectura y Urbanismo</u>	Arquitecto
<u>Ciencias Económicas</u>	Licenciado en Economía Política Contador Público Licenciado en Administración Actuario Licenciado para el Servicio Consular Traductor Público Calígrafo Público
<u>Ciencias Exactas y Naturales</u>	Licenciado en Química Licenciado en Ciencias Físicas " " " Matemáticas " " " Geológicas " " " Biológicas " " " Meteorológicas Computador Científico Pronosticador Médico Kinesiólogo Obstétrica Enfermera Universitaria Visitadora de Higiene Fonoaudiólogo Asistente Técnico Radiología Auxiliar de Oftalmología
<u>Ciencias Médicas</u>	Abogado Procurador Asistente Social Escribano Farmacéutico Bioquímico
<u>Derecho y Ciencias Sociales</u>	Licenciado en Filosofía " " Letras " " Historia " " Geografía " " Psicología " " Sociología " " Ciencias -
<u>Farmacia y Bioquímica</u>	Antropólogos Licenciado en Ciencias de la Educación Licenciado en Ciencias de la Artes.
<u>Filosofía y Letras</u>	

(1) For the purpose of comparison we have taken Edinburgh University and the University of Buenos Aires.

Profesor en Filosofía
 " " Letras
 " " Historia
 " " Geografía
 " " Psicología
 " " Sociología
 " " Ciencias de la Educación
 " " Historia de las Artes
 Técnico en Servicio de Museo
 Bibliotecario
 Archivista

Ingeniería: Ingeniero Civil
 " Industrial
 " Electromecánico
 " Naval y Mecánico
 " Químico
 Agrimensor

CERTIFICATES AND DIPLOMAS

Medicine

Psychiatry
 Public Health
 Radiotherapy
 Radiodiagnosis
 Tropical Medicine & Hygiene
 Medical Services Administration

Veterinary Medicine

Tropical Veterinary Medicine
 Veterinary State Medicine

Arts

Applied Linguistics
 English Studies
 Fine Arts
 Islamic Studies
 General Linguistics
 Phonetics

Social Science

Architectural Acoustics
 Civil Design
 Clinical Psychology
 Education
 Geography
 Management Studies
 Social Anthropology
 Social Studies
 Landscape Architecture
 African Studies
 Regional Studies
 Nursing Studies

Science

Animal Genetics
 Applied Dynamics
 Biology
 Biophysics
 Chemical Pharmacology
 Computer Science
 Electronics & Radio
 Fluid Dynamics
 Forestry
 Physics & Elementary Particles
 Plant Taxonomy
 Rural Science

CERTIFICATES & LICENTIATESHIPS

Arts

English Studies

Divinity

Licentiate Studies

Social Science

Child Care
 Educational Studies
 Medical Social Work
 Psychiatric Social Work
 Public Administration
 Social Studies
 Nursing Studies

Agronomía y Veterinaria:

Arquitectura y Urbanismo
 Ciencias Económicas

Ciencias Médicas

Post-Graduate:

Farmacia y Bioquímica

Filosofía y Letras

Ingeniería (Post-Grad.)

Práctico en Floricultura y Jardinería

Arquitecto Urbanista o Ingeniero Urbanista (Post-Grad.)

Especialización en Análisis Estadísticas
 Especialización Sobre Materia Impositiva

Diplomado en Salud Pública
 Certificado en Anestesiología
 Certificado en Cirugía de Urgencia
 " " Infantil

Médico Higienista

" Superintendente de Higiene Industrial
 " Especialista en Enfermedades Infecciosas
 " Psiquiatra
 " Legista
 " Dietólogo
 " Cardiólogo
 " Tisiólogo
 " de Fábrica
 " Oftalmólogo
 " Especialista en Roentgen-Diagnóstico
 " Radióloga Especialista en Radioterapia

Óptico Técnico

Farmacéutico Industrial
 Farmacéutico Bioquímico

Especialista en Sociología Aplicada (Post-Grad.)

Ingeniero en Petróleo

Doctor en Física

Doctor en Ciencias Naturales

" " Geológicas

Ingeniero en Petróleo o Doctor en Química

Ingeniero Especializado en Ferroviania

" " Hidráulica

" " Sanitaria

Ingeniero Geodesta-Geofísico

Ingeniero Geodesta

Ingeniero Hidrógrafo

Ingeniero Especializado en Electrónica

" " Metalurgia

Odontología:

(Post-Grad.)

Mecánico Para Dentistas

Odontólogo Especialista en Cirugía

Maxilar

Odontólogo Ortodoncista

" Radiólogo

" Especialista en Dentaduras Completas

" " Odontopediatría

h) The University of Edinburgh is governed by:

The Chancellor
The Acting Vice-Chancellor
The Rector
The Principal
The Acting Principal
The University Court
The Curators of Patronage
The Senatus Academicus
The General Council
The Scottish Universities' Committee of the Privy Council

Each Faculty has a Dean and one or more Associate Deans.

State Universities in Argentina are governed by:

El Consejo Superior de la Universidad.
El Rector (appointed by the Government)
Rectors of National and Provincial Universities are members of the Consejo Superior de Rectores.

Each Faculty has a Decano and a Vice-Decano

i) The University teaching-staff organised in a hierarchy is as follows:

Professor
Reader
Senior Lecturer
Lecturer
Assistant Lecturer
Part-time Lecturer

Profesor
Profesor Asociado
Profesor Adjunto
Profesor Contratado

Auxiliares Docentes:

Jefe de Trabajos Prácticos
Ayudante Diplomado
Ayudante Alumno

Colleges of Education. For the purpose of comparison we will take the Colleges of Education in Scotland and Colleges of Education in Buenos Aires.

In Scotland Colleges of Education train Primary, Secondary and Further Education Teachers.

In Argentina Colleges of Education train Secondary Education Teachers, and Teachers of Technical Subjects both for Primary and Secondary Education.(1)

(1) Primary School Teachers are trained in one of the four types of Secondary schools. "Escuelas o Colegios Normales". See above.

Courses last:

Primary Education Teachers

3 years for women who come straight from school to college.

1 year for men and women who already hold a degree of a University in the United Kingdom or an associateship or diploma of a central institution.

One year and in some cases one term or equivalent for men and women who hold a Teacher's Certificate (Secondary Education).

Secondary Education Teachers.

1 year for men and women holding an approved Diploma, associateship or degree.

There are courses of one, two or three sessions for candidates for the Certificate in Technical Subjects and courses of three sessions for men and women leading to the award of the Certificate in Physical Education.

Further Education

2 months' full-time study, followed by a session of supervised teaching employment in further education and completed by a further 2 months' full-time study.

Courses last four years for Secondary School Teachers.

Courses in Technical Subjects vary in length from 2 to 4 years.

Admission is according to qualifications.

Admission is by entrance examination.

Qualifications conferred are:

Teacher's Qualification (Primary Education)

Teacher's Qualification (Secondary Education)

Teacher's Qualification (Further Education)

Profesor de Enseñanza Secundaria, Normal y Especial.

Profesor con especialidad en ...

Training Colleges in Scotland are autonomous.

In Buenos Aires Training Colleges are autonomous.

They are governed by a Governing Body composed of the Principal, representatives of relevant educational authorities, universities, teachers, churches and the Secretary of State.

They are governed by a Consejo Superior composed of the Rector, Directores de Sección and Consejeros (elected from the teaching-staff).

The teaching-staff in a hierarchy is as follows:

The Principal
The Vice-Principal
The Head(s) of Department(s)
Senior Lecturer
Lecturer

The Rector-a
Directores de Sección
Profesores (of the different subjects)

9.14 The relevant information for the identification and listing of cognate lexical items for analysis may be subsumed under three headings: 1) Persons Concerned with Teaching; 2) Persons Engaged in Learning and 3) Names of Educational Establishments where Teaching Takes Place.

Graphically:

Stages of Education	Qualifications	Persons Concerned with Teaching		Niveles de Enseñanza
		BRITAIN	ARGENTINA	
Primary		Superordinate (Primary) Teacher Teacher Deputy Head-Teacher Deputy Head/Mistress Deputy Head/Mistress	Maestra-a Vice-Directora-a Profesor de Materias Especiales	Normal Profesor de Enseñanza Secundaria Normal y Especial
Secondary		Superordinate Teacher Teacher (School) Master/Mistress (Deputy) Head-Master/Mistress (Deputy) Head-Teacher (Scotland)	Profesor-a (Vice) Director-a (Vice) Rector-a	Profesor de Enseñanza Secundaria Normal y Especial
Further Education (a) Universities	(B.A) Bachelor of Arts (M.A.) Master of Arts (Ph.D) Doctor in Philosophy etc. (See Degrees)	Superordinate Univ. Teachers Government Scottish Univ. Committee of the Privy Council General Council Senatus Academicus Curators of Patronage University Court Acting Principal Principal Rector Acting Vice-Chancellor Chancellor	Profesor/Catedrático Profesor Asociado Profesor Adjunto Profesor Contratado Jefe de Trabajos Prácticos Ayudante Diplomado Ayudante Alumno Consejo Superior de la Universidad Consejo de Rectores Consejo Superior de Facultades Rector Decano Vice-Decano o Secretario Técnico Consejeros	las Titulos Varían de acuerdo con la cátedra y la facultad e.g. Médicos de Distinta Especialidad en Medicina Ingenieros de Distinta Especialidad en Ingeniería Abogados en Abogacía, etc. Licenciado (See Degrees)
(b) Colleges of Education	Teacher's Qualification (Primary Education) Teacher's Qualification (Secondary Education) Teacher's Qualification (Further Education)	Principal Vice Principal Head(s) of Department(s) Senior Lecturer Lecturer Government Governing body composed of the Principal, representatives of relevant educational authorities, Universities, Teachers, Churches and the Secretary of State	Consejo Superior Rector-a Director-a de Sección Consejero-a Profesor-a Contratado-a Profesor (más la Especialidad)	Profesor de Enseñanza Secundaria Normal, Superior y Especial (Superiores del Profesorado)
(c) Adults			a) Sección Primaria Maestro Normal y Profesor Especial b) Sección Secundaria, Profesor de Enseñanza Secundaria Normal Superior y Especial c) Otras Materias: Profesor de la Especialidad	Adultos

Names of Educational Establishments where Teaching takes place
BRITAIN ARGENTINA

<p>Pre - Primary</p> <p>Nursery School Kindergarten</p>	<p>Enseñanza Pre-Escolar</p> <p>Guardería Jardín de Infantes Pre-Escolar</p>
<p>Primary Education</p> <p>England, Wales & N. Ireland: Infant School or Department</p> <p>Scotland: Primary School</p> <p>Schools for Handicapped Children</p>	<p>Enseñanza Primaria</p> <p>Escuela Primaria Escuela Diferencial</p>
<p>Secondary Education</p> <p>(a) Comprehensive Schools (b) Separatist System</p> <p>England & Wales (1) Grammar School (2) Secondary Modern School (3) Secondary Technical School (4) Bilateral School (5) Multilateral School</p> <p>Scotland (1) Junior Secondary School with courses leading up to Scottish Certificate of Education of four, five or six years</p> <p>N. Ireland (1) Grammar School (2) Secondary Intermediate School (3) Technical Intermediate School</p>	<p>Enseñanza Secundaria</p> <p>Liceo de Señoritas Colegio Nacional Escuela de Comercio Escuela Industrial Escuela Normal</p>
<p>Higher Education</p> <p>College of Education, Art, etc. University of / — University Faculty of ——— Department of ——— School of ———</p>	<p>Enseñanza Superior</p> <p>Instituto Nacional Superior del Profesorado Universidad de ——— Facultad de ——— Departamento / Escuela / Instituto de ———</p>
<p>Adult Education & Further Education</p> <p>college of</p>	<p>Adultos</p> <p>Escuela Primaria (see Enseñanza Primaria) Escuela Secundaria (see Enseñanza Secundaria)</p>

9.25. List of Cognates for Analysis. It is to be noted that all the

English lexical items taken from

the "cognate" mapped set above are marked with the category feature

(paul). In order to include some verbs the similar "cognate" have

been compiled. The following are the "cognates" engaged in learning

and 2) Verbs

objectives and

subordinate to

for, as it was

of some

ARGENTINA

"Persons Engaged in Learning"

BRITAIN

Superordinate Team: Estudiantado		
Enseñanza Primaria	Alumno-a; Escolar	
Enseñanza Secundaria	Alumno-a; Estudiante	
Enseñanza Superior	Estudiante	
Primary Education	Pupil	
Secondary Education	Pupil	
Higher Education	Student	

9.15. List of Cognates for Analysis. It is to be noted that all the cognate lexical items taken from the "subsets" mapped out above are marked with the category feature [noun]. In order to include some verbs two smaller "subsets" have been compiled: a) Verbs related to "Persons engaged in learning" and b) Verbs related to "Persons engaged in teaching" (1). The adjectives which are included in the list are all "related" in graphic substance to either nouns or verbs on the list. No adverbs are included, for, as it was seen in Chapter VI, the meaning of most of the adverbs of manner found in the research have deducible meanings. (2)

The list is as follows:

academy, n.	academia, n.
alumnus, n.	alumno-a, n.
apprehend, v.	aprehender, v.
	aprender, v.
	prender, v.
assist, v.	asistir, v.
assistance, n.	asistencia, n.
attend, v.	atender, v.
bachelor, n.	bachiller, n.
certificate, n.	certificado, n.
chancellor, n.	canciller, n.
class, n.	clase, n.
class, v.	clasificar, v.
college, n.	colegio, n.
course, n.	curso, n.
course, v.	cursar, v.

-
- (1) Notice that by using "engaged" rather than "concerned" we are excluding part of the "field!"
- (2) This does not imply that all cognate adverbs in English and Spanish are congruent in meaning. cf. "presently" \longleftrightarrow "Presentemente", "presentáneamente" (Both entered in D.R.A.E., but "non-actual in Porteño Spanish). Translation Equivalents: pronto, luego, ya, dentro de poco, de aquí a poco tiempo. (Cassell.)

curator, n.	curador-a, adj.
	curador-a, n.
dean, n.	decano-a, n.
doyen, n.	deán, n.
deputy, adj.	diputado-a, n.
diploma, n.	diploma, n.
director, n.	director-a, adj.
	director-a, n.
docent, n. (non-actual)	docente, n.
docent, adj. (non-actual)	docente, adj.
don, n.	don, n.
don, v.	-----
donna, n.	doña, n.
doña, n.	doña, n.
duenna, n.	dueña, n.
educate, v.	educar, v.
education, n.	educación, n.
educated, adj.	educado-a, adj.
egress, n.	egreso, n.
-----	egresar, v.
enrol, v.	enrolar, v.
explicate, v. (non-actual)	explicar, v.
faculty, n.	facultad, n.
ingress, n.	ingreso, n.
-----	ingresar, v.
inscribe, v.	inscribir, v.
inscription, n.	inscripción, n.
institute, n.	instituto, n.
institute, v.	instituir, v.
instruct, v.	instruir, v.
lecture, n.	lectura, n.
lecturer, n.	lector-a, n.
lecture, v.	-----
lesson, n.	lección, n.
licentiate, n.	licenciado-a, n.

licensee, n.	licenciado-a, n.
lyceum, n.	liceo, n.
lycee, n.	liceo, n.
master, n.	maestro, n.
maestro, n.	maestro, n.
master, v.	amaestrar, v.
	maestrar, v. (non-actual)
	maestrear, v. (non-actual)
	maestralizar, v. (non-actual)
mistress, n.	maestra, n.
matriculate, v.	matricular(se), v.
matriculation, n.	matrícula, n.
matter, n.	materia, n.
matter, v.	----
principal, adj.	principal, adj.
principal, n.	principal, n.
professor, n.	profesor, n.
pupil, n.	pupilo-a, n.
qualify, v.	calificar, v.
qualification, n.	calificación, n.
rector, n.	rector-a, adj.
	rector-a, n.
	escolar, adj.
	escolar, n.
	escuela, n.
scholar, n.	seminario, n.
school, n.	seminario, n.
seminar, n.	estudiante, n.
seminary, n.	sujeto, n.
student, n.	sujetar, v.
subject, n.	sujeto-a, adj.
subject, v.	supervisar, v.
subject, adj.	supervisor-a, n.
supervise, v.	supervisión, n.
supervisor, n.	título, n.
supervision, n.	tutor-a, n.
title, n.	universidad, n.
tutor, n.	
university, n.	

9.16. Practical Analysis of Cognate Lexical Items. The analysis which follows is a sample of what a dictionary of cognates should look like. As it is intended for learners of Spanish whose mother tongue is English, everything in the dictionary, with the exception of Spanish graphological and phonological words, surface structures and translation equivalents, will be written in English.

9.16.1. Format of a Dictionary Page. As was suggested above, information about English cognate lexical items will be entered on the left hand side of the page, and information about the Spanish cognate lexical items will be entered on the right. The setting out of the information will be as follows:

(1)

...X...A, ↔ ...Y...A...

..(2).. ..(3).. .(4) ..(5)..

.....
..... (6) (8)
.....

.....
..... (7)
.....

1. Head-entry: X = English cognate lexical item.
 \leftrightarrow = Symbol for cognateness.
 Y = Spanish Cognate lexical item.
 A = Category features.

2. English graphological word.
3. English phonological word.
4. Category feature.
5. Syntactic information.
6. Different readings of the item.
7. List of graphological words derived from the same root-morpheme.
8. Ditto for the Spanish cognate lexical item.

9.16.2. Readings of Lexical Items. The setting out of each of the readings of cognate lexical items will be as follows:

- ...(1)...
- ...(2)... ...(3)...
- ...(4)...
- ...(5)...
- ...(6)...

1. Surface structures. (whenever necessary).
2. Universe of Discourse label. (if any).
3. Definition.
4. Cultural Semantic Markers. (if any).
5. Conceptual Field Semantic Markers.
6. Translation Equivalent(s).

9.16.3. Head-entries. Each of the cognate lexical items listed above will be entered as a head-entry. The items will be marked with a category feature. Their frequency indexes (from A General Service List of English Words and A Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words) (if any) will be entered after the category feature. The symbol /x/ before an English item indicates that it was found in the Oxford Progressive English Alternative Course.

9.16.4. Notation of Features. In the discussion of category and subcategorization features in Chapter VI, the conventional (as used by Chomsky et al) notation of features was used. In the practical analysis which follows we will adopt the conventions of traditional lexicography, i.e. use abbreviations (n., v., etc) for category features as well as for subcategorization features (c. for countable, u. for uncountable, masc. for masculine, etc.)

9.16.5. Conceptual Field Semantic Markers. All conceptual field semantic markers entered in the analysis refer to Roget's Thesaurus. A list of conceptual field semantic markers used followed by the numbers according to Roget's classification and the "class" to which they belong is included at the end.

9.16.6. Translation Equivalence. As was stated above (7.5) the concept of translation equivalence in a dictionary of cognates departs from the word-for-word translation equivalence of bilingual dictionaries. In some cases the translation equivalence entered could be rightly called "Translation Definition" for, in the absence of a translation equivalent word or due to the need to translate

cultural semantic markers, they are really definitions of the cognate lexical item in the target language. But, for the sake of uniformity, we have entered both translation equivalent words and "Translation Definitions" under the same abbreviation, i.e. T.E.

9.16.7. List of Graphological Words derived from the Same Root-Morpheme.

In the discussion of "Graphological and Morphological Correspondences of Cognate Lexical Items" (6.2.1. above) it was proposed that graphological words derived from the same root-morpheme should be entered as sub-entries. In the practical section which follows these words are listed after the last readings (of the English and Spanish items) of the cognate-head entries. No analysis nor translation equivalents are given. It will be found that though some of the head-entries in one language do not have a cognate lexical item in the other language (cf. Spanish "don", from Latin "donum") the list of graphological words for the English cognate "don" from Latin "dominus" includes "donary", "donate", etc. which are derived from Latin "donum". The apparent discrepancy arises from the fact that the head-entries in the analysis are not the cognate root-morphemes but lexical items found in "lexical subsets". In a "complete" dictionary these entries will appear, as was suggested, under the cognate head-morpheme.

Within the list of graphological words derived from the same root "non-actual but found in monolingual dictionaries" graphological words (see 6.2.1. above) are marked (non-actual). It might be argued that the use of the term "non-actual" is bound to create misunderstanding by virtue of the incongruence of the cognate item "actual", i.e. its meaning in English is "real" whilst in Spanish it is "now, at present". But it must be pointed out that "actual" is here used as a technical term (cf. Lyons, op. cit. p. 119) and as such it has the same meaning in English and Spanish. (cf. Moliner's second entry: "Filosofía. Real por oposición a "potencial") Non-actual is to be read: "Potential", i.e. formed in conformity with the "rules" of the language but not in use at present. For the Spanish items there is a further qualification:

"Potential" but not in use at present in Porteño Spanish. This is relevant because throughout the practical analysis we have considered both the items and their meanings from the point of view of Porteño Spanish. As such some of the Peninsular Spanish readings (cf. "maestra: mujer del maestro") have been omitted and some Porteño Spanish items and readings of items (cf. egresar, egresado) not included in D.R.A.E. have been entered. Whenever possible, justifications for inclusions (in the form of quotations from articles, rulings of the Argentine Academy, etc) have been given in footnotes. Readings of both Spanish and English items have been omitted on two accounts: 1.) When they were found to be obsolete (cf. C.O.D. "master, v. to address by the title of master") and 2) when their usage was found to be too restricted and as such of little interest to the would-be-users of the dictionary. (cf. C.O.D. "title: fineness of gold as expressed in carats"). As regards these last two points there might seem to be a certain discrepancy between the above statement and the inclusion of the "(Very Rare)(Very Restricted Usage)" reading 1. for "Lyceum", i.e. "name of a garden with covered walls at Athens in which Aristotle taught", especially because a similar reading for "academy" ("the name of a garden near Athens where Plato taught") was omitted. The reason for this was that because of the fact that "Lyceum" has only one reading, if the item was to be entered at all its (Very Rare)(Very Restricted Usage) reading had to be included.

9.16.8. Inclusion of "types of schools" in the Practical Analysis of "School ↔ Escuela" At the end of the analysis of "School ↔ Escuela" syntagmatic modifications of the superordinate terms "school" and "escuela" were entered. These items which refer to "types" of schools may be considered "compound-words". They are absent from bilingual dictionaries and their meanings are hard to find even in monolingual dictionaries. (cf. D.R.A.E. It only enters "escuelas normales and escuelas Pías"; C.O.D. lists the "types of schools" without indication as to the differences between them.) No definitions nor translation equivalents are given for these items. Their inclusion was merely to point out that a dictionary of cognates must take into account hyponym^{no} relations.

9.16.9. Inclusion of Surface Structures for the item "lección". At the end of the analysis of "lesson \leftrightarrow lección" a series of surface structures consisting of verbs and the item "lección" as the "object of" the verbs concerned was included. These surface structures are very frequent in Porteño Spanish and the semantic differences between them (cf. dar lección; dar la lección; dar una lección) are interesting from the point of view of language-teaching.

Points 9.16.8 and 9.16.9 were included in the dictionary to point out the need for the lexicographer to a) investigate the structure of the vocabulary and b) the awareness he must have of language teaching problems.

9.16.10. Definitions. The definitions of the English cognate lexical items were taken from either S.O.E.D., or C.O.D., or P.E.D., or Hornby. The procedure which was followed was to compare the definitions and decide on the less "formal" more "understandable" for the would-be-users of the dictionary. The next step was to look up the definitions of the Spanish cognate lexical item in D.R.A.E., D.U.E., Alonso, and Lexis. If these were found to be congruent (and it must be remembered that this is a subjective decision (cf. 9 above)) the same definition as that of the English item was entered for the Spanish item. Porteño Spanish readings were justified whenever possible. The inclusion of Cultural Semantic Markers for readings of items within the "field" of education was prompted by the comparison of the background information outlined above. Native informants of English and Spanish were consulted but the responsibility for the inclusion of these Cultural Semantic Markers must rest with us.

Finally, the reader must be warned that translation definitions, translation equivalents, etc. in Spanish are entered in Porteño Spanish, i.e., it must be remembered that what we are attempting is an analysis of the items in Porteño Spanish, and as such what we are describing is "what is actually used" and not "what should be used" in Buenos Aires

ABBREVIATIONS & SYMBOLS

adj.	adjective
adv.	adverb
Alonso	Diccionario del Español Moderno
Am.Eng.	American English
c.	Countable
Camb.	Cambridge
cf.	Compare
C.O.D.	Concise Oxford Dictionary
cont.	Continued
Cult.Sem.Mark.	Cultural Semantic Marker
D.R.A.E.	Diccionario de la Lengua Española, Edición de la Real Academia Española
e.g.	exempla gratia
Eng.	English
esp.	especially
etc.	etcetera
fem.	feminine
For.	forensic
Geom.	geometry
Hornby	The Advanced Learners' Dictionary of Current English
ibid.	ibidem
i.e.	id est.
int.	interrogative
-L.	From Latin
lit.	literary
masc.	masculine
Morínigo	Diccionario de Americanismos
n.	noun
nn.	nouns
non-actual	is to be read "potential" but not in use at present in British English or in Porteño Spanish
Num.	numismatic

Oxf.	Oxford
p.	page
Pen.Sp.	Peninsular Spanish
pl.	plural
Port.Sp.	Porteño Spanish
pos.	position
pp.	pages
refl.	reflexive
S.O.E.D.	Shorter Oxford English Dictionary
Sp.Amer.	Spanish American
Std.	Standard
Std.Pen.Sp.	Standard Peninsular Spanish
T.E.	Translation equivalent
tr.	transitive
v.	verb
vol.	volume
U.S.A.	United States of America
usu.	usually
u.	uncountable
↔	to be read "cognates"

academy, n. \longleftrightarrow academia, n. 54.

academy, ə'kædəmi n.; c.

1. The French Academy, the Royal Academy.
A society for the promotion of literature, art or science.
(Association)(Knowledge)
T.E. academia, 1.

2. An institution for the study of the arts and sciences. Hence, a place of training, esp. in a special art.
(Education)(Knowledge)
T.E. academia, 2.

3. In Scotland, a secondary school (generally co-educational) of the type of English Grammar School.
(Education)
T.E. En Escocia, escuela secundaria, generalmente mixta, similar al "colegio nacional" de Argentina.

academia, akədēmia n.; c.; fem.

1. -- de la lengua, de letras, de Medicina.
A society for the promotion of literature, art or science.
(Association)(Knowledge)
T.E. academy, 1.

2. -- de dibujo, de corte y confección, de contabilidad.
A private institution for the study of the arts and sciences. Hence, a place of training, esp. in a special art.
(Education)(Knowledge)
Cult. Sem. Mark. (Privately owned and run)
T.E. Privately owned and run institution for the study of the arts and sciences. (academy, 2.)

academic, adj.; n.
 academical, adj.
 academically, adv.
 academician, n.
 academicism, n.

académicamente, adv.
 academismo, n.
 académico-a, adj.
 académico-a, n. 7.
 academio, n. (rare)
 academismo, n. (1)
 academista, n.

-
- (1) Not entered in D.R.A.E. cf. Apuntaciones Lexicográficas y Gramaticales, Herrero Mayor, A., p. 17
 "Academismo" y "academicismo" se disputan - fuera del diccionario - el privilegio o preferencia.
 Casares, on the other hand, condemns "academismo" as "badly formed". Nuevo Concepto del Diccionario de la Lengua, p. 176.

The entries, a) The name of a garden near Athens where Plato taught; b) The school or system of Plato; and c) Figure, a drawing, half-size in crayon or pencil from the nude; in D.R.A.E. and S.O.E.D. have been omitted.

alumnus, e'lumnas
n.; c.; masc./fem.; pl.
alumni, e'lumni

1. (U.S.A.) (Rare in British Eng.) (Former)
pupil or student.
(Education)
T.E. alumno, l; (former pupil) ex-alumno-a.
(1)

alumno-a, al'umno-a
n.; c.; masc.; pl.
alumnos-nas.

1. -- de física, de música, de inglés,
de medicina, etc.
Any disciple with respect to his/her
master or subject. (Used in Private
Tuition, Primary, Secondary and
Higher Education).
T.E. alumnus, l (rare); (Private
tutoring, Primary, Secondary
Education) pupil; (Higher Educa-
tion, Further Education) student.

aluminate, n. (non-actual)

alumado, n. (2)

- (1) In Semantics, Kany says, p. 175, "Among English loans of both semantic and phonetic similarity are such occasional uses as the following: "alumno" - "alumnus" (former pupil) (Std. Pen.Sp.) "ex-alumno". His generalization does not apply to Port. Sp.
- (2) Not entered in D.R.A.E. Found in Moliner, Alonso and Morínigo. cf. Morínigo, p. 46., "Alumado: el conjunto de los alumnos de un establecimiento de enseñanza".
D.R.A.E.'s entry: "Persona criada desde su niñez por alguno, respecto a éste", has been omitted. cf. Semántica Española, Vilches Acuña, p. 95, "Alumno: Hoy sólo señala al discípulo con respecto a su maestro."

apprehend, v. \longleftrightarrow apprehender, v.
 apprender, v. 57
 prender, v. 15

apprehend, ʔəpri'hend v.; tr.

1. Seize; arrest.
 (Taking)(Confinement)
 T.E. apprehender, 1; arrestar.

2. Grasp, perceive, understand.
 (Intelligibility)
 T.E. apprehender, 2.; comprehend, entender.

3. To look forward to with fear, dread.
 (Fear)
 T.E. sospechar, temer, recelar.

aprehender, apreen'der v.; tr.

1. Seize, arrest.
 (Taking)(Confinement)
 T.E. apprehend, 1; arrest, seize.
2. Grasp, perceive, understand.
 (Intelligibility)
 T.E. apprehend, 1; understand, grasp.

aprender, apren'der v.; tr.

1. -- de (alguien); -- a ...
 a) To learn something through study or
 experience.
 (Learning)

...

b) -- de memoria.

To learn by heart.

(Learning)(Memory)

T.E. a) to learn; b) memorize, to learn by heart.

prender, prender v. tr.

1. -- un cigarrillo, el cigarro, el fuego, la lámpara, la luz (eléctrica). (2)
To light. Set (lamp, fire, etc.) burning.

(Heating)

T.E. to light, set fire to.

2. -- un botón, el saco, el chaleco, una rosa en el vestido.

To fasten, to pin, to button up.

(Junction)

T.E. to pin, to fasten, to button up.

3. v. int.

a) (of plants) To take root.

(Plants)

b) (of vaccines) To take, have the required effect.

(Remedy)

T.E. a) to take root, to take; b) to take.

aprehensible, adj.
 apprehension, n.
 apprehensive, adj.

aprehendiente, adj. (non-actual)
 aprendiz, n.
 aprendizaje, n.
 aprehensión, n.
 aprehenso-a, adj. (non-actual)
 aprehensor-a, n.
 aprehensorio-a, adj. (non-actual)

-
- (1) cf. Kany, American Spanish Syntax, p. 337. "The verb 'aprender' 'to learn' is followed by the dative in the colloquial speech of some Spanish-American regions, that is by 'a' rather than by the standard 'de'. Such usage is clearly analogical with other verbs, ... and possibly influenced by the preposition 'a' before a following infinitive. e.g. Argentina. 'Y enseña, mirándola a la señora, con esos ojos de corsario, que le aprendió al rubio Cepeda, añadía muy risueño', 'Qué doña Julia, esta! (Lynch, Romance, p. 278)"
- (2) Ibid. "Prender", por "prender fuego a" originally was the subject of the verb "to set fire to, to light", (Std. "encender"), as in "prender un fósforo, el calentador, prender la luz (eléctrica); (Corominas) prende la vela, prende la habitación; (Malaret) prende la candela o el ocote porque ya oscureció, (Guatemala, Sandoval); Un par de cigarrillos ... que prendimos en las primeras llamaradas (Argentina, Güiraldes)".

assist, v. ← → asistir, v. 63.

assist, ə'sist v.; tr.

1. (Formal) Help; aid; take part in, especially as subordinate helper.
(Aid)
T.E. asistir, 1. (Formal); ayudar, auxiliar, actuar de ayudante.

asistir, (1) əsɪ'h'tɪr v.; tr.; int.

1. (Formal) Help, aid; take part in, especially as a subordinate helper.
(asistir en operaciones.)
(Aid)
T.E. assist, 1 (Formal); help.

2. Give medical or surgical care to; to treat.

(Therapy)

T.E. to treat, to attend, 3.

3. -- a...

To be present at, to attend.

(Presence)

T.E. attend, 3; be present at.

-
- (1) D.R.A.E.'s entries: a) "Servir en algunas cosas, como los mozos de asistencia, que no sirven para todo lo que los criados; b) Hablando de la razón, el derecho, etc., estar de parte de una persona; c) En ciertos juegos de naipes, echar cartas del mismo palo que el de aquella que se jugó primero."

- (2) "atender" is also common in Port. Sp.

assistance, ə'sistəns n.; u.

1. (Formal)
Help; aid.
(Aid)

T.E. asistencia, 1 (in the environment
of "publica") ayuda, auxilio.

asistencia, əsɪ'hʌnsɪə n.; u.

1. -- Pública. (1)

Municipal institution for the care of
sick or wounded people without means.
(Aid)

T.E. Municipal Institution for the care
of sick or wounded people without
means.

2. Attendance, presence.
(Presence)
T.E. attendance.

assistant, n.

asistente, n.

asistente, n. 7

asistimiento, n. (non-actual)

(1) cf. Morínigo, "Institución Pública de beneficencia para enfermos menesterosos o que auxilia (no "asiste") a las víctimas de un accidente callejero." See also "Deceptive Demons", Reid, J.T., Hispania, XXI, 1948, p. 285, "Asistencia has developed several meanings: presence, as "se inauguró la asamblea con asistencia del presidente"; meals, as in "cuarto con asistencia" (Santamaría) (not in Port. Sp.) and, particularly public, organised aid to the poor: Secretario de Asistencia Pública."

/x/ attend, v. 301 ↔ atender, v. 34.

attend, a'tend

v.; tr.; int.

1. To apply oneself to something; to satisfy somebody's wish, command, request.
(Attention)(Obedience)
T.E. atender, 1.

2. To turn one's understanding or mind to.
(Attention)
T.E. atender, 2; prestar, poner atención.

3. To escort, accompany, wait upon;
(Attention)(Accompaniment)(Protection)
T.E. atender, 3; acompañar.

4. (Medicine) To treat, to give medical care to.
(Therapy)
T.E. atender, 4; asistir, 2.

atender, atender

v. tr; int.

1. To apply oneself to; to satisfy somebody's command, wish, request.
(Attention)(Obedience)
T.E. attend, 1.

2. To apply one's understanding or mind to; to listen to somebody or something.
(Attention)(Hearing)
T.E. attend, 2; to pay attention to, to listen.

3. To escort, accompany, wait upon.
(Attention)(Accompaniment)(Protection)
T.E. attend, 3; to escort, accompany; to be attentive.

4. (Medicine)
To treat, to give medical care to.
(Therapy)
T.E. attend, 4; to treat.

...

5. To be present at. (1)
(Presence)
T.E. asistir, 3.; estar presente, concurrir.

/x/ attendant, n.	atención, n. 67
attendant, n.	atendedor-a, n. (Printing) (rare)
/x/ attention, n. 679	atendible, adj.
/x/ attentive, adj. 23	atendimiento, n. (non-actual)
/x/ attentively, adv.	atento, adj. 13

- (1) cf. Kany, American Spanish Semantics, p. 175, "Among English loans of both semantic and phonetic similarity are such occasional uses as the following: "atender", "to attend" (Std. "asistir a") as in "Se espera que los oradores de la mañana atiendan las conferencias de la tarde"; and Toscano, H. Hablemos del lenguaje, p. 293, "Está generalizándose, sobre todo en los periódicos, el uso del verbo "atender" por "asistir" a un colegio o escuela. No es raro leer que un señor atiende un curso de física en tal o cual universidad, etc. Es un uso tomado del inglés que debe desterrarse." These generalizations do not apply to Port. Sp.

D.R.A.E.'s entries, a) Esperar o aguardar, b) tener en cuenta, o en consideración alguna cosa, c) leer uno para sí, el original de un escrito, con el fin de ver si esta conforme con el de la prueba que va leyendo en voz alta el corrector., have been omitted.

bachelor, n. \longleftrightarrow bachiller, n. 9.

bachelor, 'bætʃələ n.; c.

1. masc./fem.
-- of Arts, Science, etc.
In Great Britain, with the exception of Scotland (where the first academic degree is Master), person who has taken the first or lowest academic degree.
(Education) (Degree)
Cult.Sem.Mark. (Higher Education)
T.E. En Gran Bretaña, (excepto en Escocia, donde el primer grado académico es "Master") persona egresada de la universidad con el primer grado académico.

2. masc.

- An unmarried man.
(Celibacy)
T.E. soltero.

bachellordom, n.
bachelorship, n.
bachelorism, n.

bachiller, batʃi'ʒer

n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. Graduate of one of the four types of secondary schools in Argentina. (see colegio and escuela.)
(Education) (Degree)
Cult.Sem.Mark. (In Secondary Education)
T.E. graduate of one of the four types of secondary schools in Argentina, similar to the English Grammar School. (See college and school.)

bachilleradgo, n. (non-actual)
bachilleramiento, n. (non-actual)
bachillerar, v.

...

bachelorly, adj.

bachelry, n. (non-actual)

bachelorship, n.

bachillerato, n.

bachillerazgo, n. (non-actual)

bachillerear, v.

D.R.A.E.'s entries: a) "Persona que ha recibido el primer grado académico que se otorgaba antes a los estudiantes de facultad y que ahora se concede en las de teología y derecho, and b) Persona que habla mucho e impertinentemente". have been omitted. C.O.D.'s entries: a) "Young knight under another's banner; b) various button shaped flowers, also small ratafia biscuit, also buttons attachable without sewing; and c) young male fur-seal with no mate". , have been omitted.

certificate, n. \longleftrightarrow certificado, n.
certificado-a, adj.

certificate, ~~sertifikat~~ n.; c.

1. a) Document formally attesting a fact, especially the bearer's status, acquisitions, fulfilment of conditions, etc.
(Record)
T.E. certificado, 1. a).
- b) (Education) Cult.Sem.Mark. (Only in secondary and higher Education)

certificado, ~~sertifikado~~ n.; c.; masc.

1. a) Document formally attesting a fact, especially the bearer's status, acquisitions, fulfilment of conditions, etc.
(Record)
- b) (Education) Cult.Sem.Mark. (Only in Primary (certificado de sexto grado) and Higher Education).

certificado-a, adj.; post-noun pos.

1. carta, paquete ---.
Letter, parcel etc, by registered post.
(Correspondence)
T.E. (letter, parcel, etc.) by registered post.

2. Authenticated, esp. of a document.
(Evidence, proof)
T.E. authenticated.

certify, v.

certifier, n.

certifiable, adj.

certificar, v.

certificación, n.

certificadorio-a, adj.

/x/ Chancellor, n. ← → canceller, n.

chancellor, 'tʃɑːnsələ n.; c.; masc.

- 1. In some universities, titular head or president. The duties of the Chancellor are usually performed by the Vice-Chancellor.
(Education) (Person in Authority)
T.E. Título honorífico. "Presidente"
de algunas universidades.

- 2. -- of England; -- of the Exchequer; -- of Garter; Lord High Chancellor.
State or law official of various kinds.
(Government) (Law) (Person in Authority)
T.E. En Gran Bretaña, título dado a algunos magistrados u oficiales del Estado.
La traducción varía de acuerdo con el título completo.

chancellery, n.

canciller, kans'ʒer n.; c.; masc.

- 1. (Diplomacy) Embassy, consulate or legation official. In Argentina, Minister of Foreign Affairs. (l) (Deputy) (Agent)
T.E. Embassy, consulate or legation official. In Argentina,
Minister of Foreign Affairs.

cancilleresco-a, adj.

chancellory, n.
chancery, n.

cancillería, n.

-
- (1) cf. Semántica Española, Vilches Acuña, p. 16., "... (canciller) ha pasado a denotar un cargo de confianza en los consulados, y embajadas diplomáticas." cf. also, La Nación, Buenos Aires, 29 de abril de 1968, p. 1. "El Ministro de Relaciones Exteriores, doctor Nicanor Costa Méndez, dijo que "la respuesta que el gobierno Argentino espera en este asunto es una sola". Obviamente, el canciller aludió a los puntos básicos de la demanda."

class, klas

n.; c.

1. A number of individuals (persons or things) possessing common attributes, and grouped together under a general or "class" name; a kind, sort, division. (Category)
T.E. class, 1.

2. Higher ---; middle ---; working ---; upper ---.
Division of society according to birth, wealth or occupation. (Degree)
T.E. class, 2.

3. a) Group of students following the same course of instruction.
b) Course of instruction on a subject.
c) Division of examination candidates according to merit. (Education)
T.E. a) class, 3; b) class, 3; curso; c) clasificación de los estudiantes de acuerdo con el resultado de los exámenes. Cuando el examen es final los títulos son de Primera, Segunda y Tercera "class"

class, 'klase

n.; c.; fem.

1. A number of individuals (persons or things) possessing common attributes, and grouped together under a general or "class" name; a kind, sort, division. (Category)
T.E. class, 1.
2. -- media, alta, baja, trabajadora, etc.
Division of society according to birth, wealth or occupation. (Degree)
T.E. class, 2.

3. a) Group of students following the same course of instruction.
b) Lesson given by the teacher.
c) Classroom. (Education)
T.E. a) class, 3,a); b) class, 3 b), lesson; c) classroom.

class,

4. first --; second --; third --; tourist --.
Distinction based on the quality or comfort
of accommodation on a train, ship or air-
craft.
(Category)
T.E. class, 4; primera, segunda, tercera class;
class turista.

class,

4. primera, segunda, tercera class; class
turista.
Distinction based on the quality or
comfort of accommodation on a train,
ship or aircraft.
(Category)
T.E. class, 4; first, second, third,
tourist class.

5. (Natural History) Highest division (class,
order, family, genus, species) of animal,
vegetable or mineral kingdom.
(Classification)
Cult. Sem. Mark. (Difference in the hierarchy)
T.E. class, 5; división más alta del reino
animal, vegetal o mineral.

5. (Natural History) Intermediate sub-
division (between kingdom and genus)
of animal, vegetable or mineral
kingdom.
(Classification)
Cult. Sem.Mark. (Difference in the
Hierarchy)
T.E. class, 5; Intermediate subdivision
between kingdom and genus.

6. La clase 1950, 1960; la clase del '29, '39,
etc.
In the armed forces, all the recruits
born in that specific year and due for
military service.
(Combatant)
T.E. In the armed forces, all the
recruits born in that specific
year and due for military
service.

...

Note the expression "tener clase" equivalent to "to be classy" Am.Eng. cf. Kany, American Spanish Semantics,
p. 281, cf. La Nación, 20 de mayo de 1968, "Un Hotel Argentino con "clase" y con "clave"."

class, v. $\leftarrow \longrightarrow$ clasificar, v. 152.

class, v. kla:s v. tr.

1. To place in a class, to classify.
(Classification)
T.E. clasificar, l.

clasificar, klasifi'kar v. tr.

1. To place in a class, to classify.
(Classification)
T.E. to classify, to class, l.

classable, adj.

classification, n. 34e

classificatory, adj.

classifier, n.

classify, v.

classless, adj.

clasificación, n.

clasificado-a, adj. 6

clasificador-a, adj.; n.

clasificar, v.

college, 'kolidʒ n.; c.

1. Electoral --; College of Surgeons, etc.
An organised society of persons performing certain common functions and possessing special rights and privileges. (1)
(Association)
T.E. colegio, l.

2. Army, Naval --; -- of Agriculture, etc.
Place of professional study.
(Education)
T.E. escuela, colegio, 2. (2)

colegio, ko'lexio n.; c.; masc.

1. An organised society of persons performing certain common functions and possessing special rights and privileges. (1)
(Association)
T.E. colegio, l.
2. (Private Education) Educational establishment for Primary and/or Secondary Education. (Public Education) Educational establishment for Secondary Education. In Public Education pupils are day-pupils, in Private Education they may be either day-pupils or boarders. (3)
(Education)
T.E. In Independent Education, Primary and/or Secondary School; in Public Education, Secondary School.

-
- (1) cf. Acuerdos de la Academia Argentina de Letras, p. 197 "En latín "collegium" es una asociación que está regida por una ley particular. Estas sociedades están formadas por grupos de personas que se unen para lograr un fin político, religioso o social."
 - (2) cf. Escuela Superior de Comercio Carlos Pellegrini and Colegio Nacional de Buenos Aires, both secondary schools affiliated to the University of Buenos Aires. cf. Acuerdos... pp. 202-3, "En español se comprueba que un mismo instituto de enseñanza es llamado unas veces colegio y otras escuela. En

.....

(cont.) la República Argentina es corriente emplear las expresiones Colegio Militar y Escuela Naval. (ibid.) p. 206, "Cuando escuela designa un instituto de enseñanza superior o especializado se añaden otros vocablos que determinan la naturaleza de dicho instituto, "Escuela Normal, Escuela Superior de Guerra, etc."

(3) These distinctions were taken from Acuerdos... p. 206, "Sintetizando los datos reunidos y dejando aparte algunos casos excepcionales que no podían faltar en la enmarcada historia de estos vocablos, se llega en general a las siguientes conclusiones:

- 1) Escuela, en sentido amplio, designa cualquier establecimiento de enseñanza: primaria, media, universitaria o especial.
- 2) En acepción más restringida, escuela se aplica preferentemente a los establecimientos de enseñanza primaria; colegio, a los de enseñanza primaria o media. Cuando escuela designa un instituto de enseñanza superior o especializada se añaden otros vocablos que determinan la naturaleza de dicho instituto: escuela normal, escuela superior de guerra, etc.
- 3) Las escuelas son públicas, los colegios privados. Cuando el colegio depende del Estado pertenece a la segunda enseñanza y entonces se denomina colegio nacional.
- 4) Los alumnos de las escuelas son externos, los de los colegios pueden ser externos o internos. Estos tres puntos de vista: papel del estado, clase de enseñanza, modo de asistencia, permiten distinguir claramente entre estas dos clases de establecimientos."

...

college, (cont.)

3. A society of scholars incorporated within, or in connexion with, a University, or otherwise formed for purposes of study or instruction.

(Education)

T.E. "colegio" en la acepción del siglo XIII, ahora desusada dentro de la organización de los establecimientos educacionales del Río de la Plata. (1)
Cuerpo docente o de investigación de cualquiera de los "colegios" en que están divididas las antiguas universidades de Gran Bretaña. ej. Girton College, Trinity College, ambos en la Universidad de Cambridge.

4. -- of Education; -- of Adult Education, etc.
Non-university institutions for higher or further education.

(Education)

T.E. Escuela o Instituto de Enseñanza Superior no dependiente de la universidad; escuela o instituto para la enseñanza post-secundaria de adultos.

(1) cf. Acuerdos... pp. 198-9, "Es conocida la historia posterior de la enseñanza española; el nacimiento de los estudios generales y la fundación de universidades desde el siglo XIII en adelante: la de Palencia (hacia 1212), la de Salamanca (hacia 1215), la de Valladolid (hacia 1260), etc. Junto a ellas existieron colegios en los que los alumnos vivían y estudiaban, análogos al fundado en Bolonia por el Arzobispo Gil Álvarez de Albornoz (1365)" ... "Estos colegios tuvieron enorme trascendencia en la enseñanza universitaria española, según Vicente de la Fuente, le dieron 'nueva forma... de modo que desde la época de los Reyes Católicos las universidades nacían en los colegios, y toman la forma de Colegios Universitarios durante el siglo XVI." Thus, the translation equivalence of "college", 2, may be "colegio" only if it is specified, as we have done above, that the reading is in accordance with the meaning established and recorded in the XIIIth. century, which is now obsolete.

colleger, n.

collegial, adj.

collegialism, n. (S.O.E.D.)

collegiality, n. (S.O.E.D.)

collegian, n.

collegially, adv.

collegiate, adj.

collegiately, adv. (non-actual)

colegiación, n.

colegiadamente, adv.

colegiado-a, adj.; n.

colegial, adj.; n.

colegiala, n.

colegialidad, n. (1)

colegialmente, adv.

colegiarse, v.

colegiatura, n. (non-actual) (2)

colegiata, n. (In the Catholic Church)

(1) Not entered in D.R.A.E.; found in Alonso.

(2) "vacante" used instead.

/x/ course, n. 1780e \longleftrightarrow curso, n. 48

course, kɔ:s

n; u.

1. The course of events; a river in its course to the sea.
Forward movement in space or time.
(Motion)(Direction)
T.E. curso, 1.

2. c.;

- Direction taken by something; line along which something moves; line of action.
(Motion)(Direction)
T.E. curso, 2.

3. c.

- Series of lectures, talks, etc.
(Teaching)
T.E. curso, 3.

4. c.

- race --; golf --;
Area of land prepared for races, sport, etc.
(Amusement)
T.E. (race-course) pista; (golf) cancha de golf, links (Port. Sp.)

curso, 'kɜ:so

n.; u.

1. El curso del tiempo, de la vida.
Forward movement in space or time.
(Motion)(Direction)
T.E. course, 1.

2. c.

- Direction taken by something; line along which something moves; line of action.
(Motion)(Direction)
T.E. course, 2.

3. c.

- Series of lectures, talks, etc.
(Teaching)
T.E. course, 3.

4. c.

- lectivo.
Academic year.
(Education)
T.E. academic year

...

course, (cont.)

- 5. c. One of the several parts of a meal.
(Eating)
T.E. plato

- course, kɔ:s v.; tr.; int.
- 1. (Hunting) Chase (esp. hares) with dogs (greyhounds).
(Pursuit)
T.E. cazar, dar caza, perseguir.
 - 2. (Rare)
Run about, run (esp. of liquids); move swiftly.
(Motion)
T.E. correr, fluir.

course, v. ← → cursar, v.

- cursar, kur'sar v. tr.
- 1. To attend or follow a series of lectures, course, etc.
(Education)
T.E. to attend or follow a course.
 - 2. (Law)(Commerce)
To file a suit. To forward, transmit a petition, application, etc.
(Legality)
T.E. To file a suit. To forward, transmit, a petition, application, etc.

cursado-a, adj.
cursante, n.; adj.
cursillo, n.
cursor, n.

...

cursómetro, n.

D.R.A.E.'s entry: "Frecuentar un paraje o hacer con frecuencia una cosa", has been omitted.

curator, n. \longleftrightarrow curador-a, adj.; n.

curator, *kjudeite* n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. -- of Patronage.
(Scotland) Member of Board managing property or having general superintendence in university.
(Education)
T.E. miembro del cuerpo universitario que tiene a su cargo, además de otras funciones, el nombramiento a la cátedra cuando esta está vacante. (En Escocia).

2. Official in charge of a) museum,
b) library.

(Protection)
T.E. a) director de museo; b) bibliotecario.

curador-a, *kuvdžor* adj.; post-noun pos.

1. (Rare) See curativo-a
That which cures.
(Remedy)
T.E. that which cures, healing.

curador-a, n.; c.; masc.

1. (Rare) See curandero-a
Person who cures.
(Healing Arts)
T.E. healer.

2. Person who cures food, etc.
(Preservation)
T.E. curer.

curator, (cont.)

3. (Rare) Guardian of a minor.
(Protection)(Finance)
T.E. curador-a, 3 (rare); tutor-a

/x/ curable, adj.

curate, n.

curative, adj.

curatorial, adj.

curatorship, n.

/x/ cure, n. 156e

cure, v. 156e

/x/ cured, adj.

curer, n.

curette, n.

curia, n.

curial, adj.

/x/ incurable, adj.

curador-a, (cont.)

3. (Rare) Guardian of a minor.
(Protection)(Finance)
T.E. curator, 3. (rare); guardian.

curacion, n.

curado-a, adj. 7

curadoría, n. (non-actual)

curaduría, n.

curamiento, n.

curandería, n.

curanderil, adj.

curanderismo, n.

curandero-a, n.

curar, v. 23

curativo-a, adj.

curato, n.

curia, n.

curial, adj.

curialesco-a, adj.

incurable, adj.

dean, n. doyen, n.	\longleftrightarrow	deán, n. decano-a, n.
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dean, di:n m.; c.; masc.

- 1.a) (Church of England) Clergyman at the head of a cathedral chapter.
 b) rural -- A presbyter invested with jurisdiction or precedence (under bishop or archdeacon) over a division of an archdeaconry.
 (Clergy)
 T.E. a) clérigo a cargo del capítulo de una catedral; b) presbítero con jurisdicción sobre una de las divisiones de la archidiócesis.

2. masc./fem.

- a) (Foreign, Scots and modern universities.)
 Head of a faculty.
 (Education)

T.E. decano-a, l.

- b) The officer or officers in the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge appointed to supervise the conduct and discipline of the junior members.
 (Education)

T.E. En las universidades de Oxford y Cambridge, persona a cargo de la disciplina.

deán, de'æn n.; c.; masc.

1. (Catholic Church) Church dignatary immediately below bishop.
 (Clergy)
 T.E. Church dignatary immediately below bishop.

decano-a, de'kano n.; c.; masc.

1. Head of a faculty.
 (Education)
 T.E. dean, 2 a)
 2. Senior member of a body.
 (Adult)
 T.E. doyen, l.

...

doyen, 'diɛn n.; u.; masc./fem.

1. Senior member of a body.

(Adult)

T.E. decano-a, 2.

deanery, n.

decan, n. (non-actual)

decanal, adj. (non-actual)

decanate, n. (non-actual)

decanery, -ary, n. (non-actual)

deanato, n.

deanazgo, n.

decanato, n.

deputy, 'deputi

adj.; n.; masc./fem.

1. Person appointed to act for another or others. Member of a deputation. (Education) -- Head-teacher, Headmaster, etc. (Deputy)(Agent)
T.E. diputado-a, l. (less common than) delegado-a, enviado-a, agente. (Education) vice --

diputado-a, dipu'taðo

n.; c.; masc.

1. Person appointed to act for another or others. Member of a deputation. (Deputy)(Agent)
Cult. Sem.Mark. (In Education not used in the environment of Headmaster, Head-teacher, etc.)
T.E. deputy, l., delegate; (in Education, in the environment of Rector, Decano, etc.), vice.

2. Member of the Lower House in the Argentine Parliament. (Legislature)

T.E. member of the Lower House in the Argentine parliament.

deputation, n.

depute, v.

deputise-ze, v.

diputación, n. 7

diputador-a, adj.

diputar, v.

/x/ diploma, n. ← → diploma, n.

diploma, diploma n.; c.; pl. diplomas

1. a) Certificate granting some honour, privilege, prize, etc.

b) (Education) Certificate attesting the recipient's proficiency.

c) (Higher Education) Certificate of degree granted by University or college esp. for a post-graduate course on a specific subject.

(Education)(Record)
T.E. a) diploma, la); b) & c) diploma, l. b); certificado.

2. State paper; charter.
(Government)(Record)
T.E. documento o despacho oficial; documento de estado. (1)

diploma, diploma n.; c.; pl. diplomas.

1. a) Certificate granting some honour, privilege, prize, etc.

b) (Education) In Primary, Secondary, Higher and Special Education, certificate attesting the recipient's proficiency.
(Education)(Record)
T.E. a) diploma, l. a); b) certificate; (Restricted to Higher Education), diploma, l.c)

(1) D.R.A.E.'s entry: "Despacho, bula, privilegio u otro instrumento autorizado con sello y armas de un soberano, cuyo original queda archivado.", has been omitted.

/x/ director, n. 253 \longleftrightarrow director-a, adj.
n. 33

director, direktor n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. -- of a company; -- of a department; Superintendent, manager. (Commerce) member of managing board of a commercial company; (Education) In universities person who controls the organization, running of, etc. some specific function. The title is not included within the hierarchy of University Teachers.
T.E. director, 1; (Commerce) director-a de empresa; (Education) persona a cuyo cargo esta el control, organización, etc. de un departamento o sección universitaria.

2. (Drama) Person who directs the production of a play or a film, or the lighting, dancing, etc.
(Drama)
T.E. director, (2) cinematográfico, director de escena.

3. spiritual ----.
Priest acting as spiritual adviser.
(Religion)
T.E. director (3) spiritual.

director-a, direktor n.; c.; masc.

1. -- de empresa; -- de estudios. Superintendent, manager. (Commerce) member of managing board of a commercial company. (Education) supervisor of studies, head of a department. (Management)
T.E. director, 1; (Commerce) director of a company, company director; (Education) Head of department, supervisor.
2. -- de escena, -- cinematográfico. (Drama) Person who directs the production of a play or a film, or the lighting, dancing, etc.
(Drama)
T.E. director, 2; stage manager.
3. -- spiritual.
Priest acting as spiritual adviser.
(Religion)
T.E. spiritual director, 3.
4. --- de escuela, de colegio. Head of a primary or secondary school. (Education)
T.E. (masc.) headmaster; (fem.) headmistress; (masc./fem.) head-teacher.

director-a

5. -- de orquesta.
(Music) Orquesta conductor.
(Musician)
T.E. conductor.

direct, adj. 739
direct, v. 739
/x/ directly, adv. 355
directorate, n.
directorial, adj.
directory, n.
directress, n. (non-actual)
directrix, n. (Geometry)
/x/ indirect, adj.
/x/ indirectly, adv.

dirección, n. 71
directamente, adv. 33
directiva, n.
directivo-a, adj.
directo-a, adj. 46
directorial, adj.
directorio-a, adj.
directorio, n.
directriz, n. (Geometry)
dirigente, n. 10
dirigible, n.
dirigido-a, adj. 18
dirigir, v. 82
indirecto-a, adj.
indirecta, n.
indirectamente, adv.

docent, adj.; n. (non-actual) ↔ docente, adj.; n.
 docencia, n. (1)

docente, do'sente adj.; post-noun pos.

1. problema --; centro --.
 Belonging to or related to teaching.
 (Education)(Teaching)
 T.E. educational, teaching.

docente, n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. Person engaged in teaching.
 (Education)(Teaching)
 T.E. Superordinate term for any
 person engaged in teaching.

docencia, n.; u.; fem.

1. Teaching (as a profession)
 (Education)(Teaching)
 T.E. teaching.

(1) Not entered in D.R.A.E.

don, n.; ← → don, n. 678

don, don n.; u.; masc.

1. (Rare) Spanish title prefixed to first name; formerly confined to men of high rank, but now an appellation of courtesy. Also, a Spaniard.
(Title)
T.E. don, l; señor.

don, don (-l. dominus)n.; u.; masc.

1. A Spanish title, prefixed to first name, e.g. Don Carlos, Don Juan, formerly confined to men of high rank, but now (in Pen. Sp.) an appellation of courtesy. In Port.Sp. the usage varies, in the cities it is used by lower middle-class people; in rural areas, though not restricted to social class, it is generally used by the lower middle-class as a polite form of address for the master, the boss, the foreman, etc. It is also used for a person who has distinguished himself within the same social rank. (1) Also used before family name.
(Title)
T.E. Pen. Sp., don, l.; in Port.Sp. form of address used by lower middle-class people.

(1) cf. American Spanish Syntax, Kany, pp. 425-6, "The title "don", "dona", has fallen considerably from its original high estate. In the earliest centuries of the language it was reserved for royalty

...

(cont.) and high church dignataries and later to those who rendered an important service to the state. In colonial times and even during the wars of independence the title "don" or "doña" could be bought. Independence brought with it the abolition of titles, and any name could now flourish a "don" or "doña". Its use spread throughout the middle and lower classes. In Ecuador, for instance, an extreme case, "doña" came to be applied to old Indian women. When "don" in turn fell into disrepute, the full forms "señor" and "señora" came to be preferred by the middle and upper classes, particularly in the cities." Rural Usage. "We may say that in many rural regions the title is used before given names (sometimes family names) and alone as a mere vocative, specially in addressing a stranger. In this usage (¡Oiga, don!) it is sometimes felt to be slightly lacking in courtesy, a bit jocose and nonchalant. In the country "don" and "doña" are not restricted to any social class. They are generally used by laborers, foremen, and the like, in addressing or referring to their master or mistress, boss, superiors, etc., or to a person who has distinguished himself within the same social rank. ... In the cities "doña" whilst polite, is today often applied to the washerwoman, the storekeeper's wife, and others of that social category." cf. also, Weber, F., "Formulas de Tratamiento en la Lengua de Buenos Aires", Rev. de Fil. Hispánica, Buenos Aires, III, (1940), p. 132, "Así, "don" y "doña" llegan a ser en los campos equivalentes de "señor", "señora", por una parte, y por otra se aplican también, al que se destaca dentro de una condición social más humilde, En cuanto al uso de "don" en la ciudad, parecería usarse y admitirse más que "doña". "doña" se usa seguido de nombre; "don" del nombre y también del apellido; no es tan frecuente y tiene un dejo vulgar o rustico."

don, (cont.)

2. c.; masc./fem.
In Oxford and Cambridge, senior member of a college, including those who are not university lecturers or college tutors. (See college, tutor and lecturer).
(Title)(Education)
T.E. En las Universidades de Oxford y Cambridge, miembros del profesorado de cierta categoría en la jerarquía universitaria, sin distinción de cargo. (ej. docente, administrativo, etc.)

don, (1)

1. (-l. donum) n.; c.; masc.
Intellectual faculty, gift (for languages, etc) or grace granted by God to human beings.
(Intellect)(Skill)
T.E. Intellectual faculty, gift, (for languages, etc.) or grace granted by God to human beings.
2. Gift, present, boon.
(Giving)
T.E. gift, present, godsend.

(1) D.R.A.E.'s entry "dona" has been omitted.

doña, donna, duenna, na. \longleftrightarrow doña, n. 135
 dueña, n. 16

Doña, Donna, 'dona nn.; u.; fem.

1. (Rare) A Spanish or Portuguese lady. Also prefixed to first name as a courtesy title.

(Title)
 T.E. doña, 1. (See doña for restricted usage in Porteno Sp.)

duenna, dju(:)'ena n.; c.; fem.

1. (Rare) An elderly woman, half governess, half companion, having charge over the girls of a Spanish family. A chaperon. (Accompaniment)
 T.E. (Pen.Sp.) dueña, 1.; not used in Port. Sp.

donary, n.

donate, v.

doña, 'dona n.; u.; fem.

1. Spanish title, prefixed to first name, formerly confined to women of high rank, but now (in Pen. Sp.) an appellation of courtesy. In Port. Sp. form of address used by the lower middle-class.

(Title)
 T.E. (Pen. Sp.) doña, donna, 1.; In Port. Sp. form of address used by the lower middle-class.

dueña, 'dweya n.; c.; fem.

1. A woman who has the care of or authority over a household or establishment of any kind. Owner. (Authority)
 T.E. mistress, 2; owner, proprietress, landlady.

donación, n.

donador-a, n.

donation, n.
 domish, adj.
 domishness, n.

donante, n.
 donar, v.
 donatario, n.
 donativo, n.

/x/ educate, v. 182e \longleftrightarrow educar, v. 34.

educate, 'edju(:)keit v.; tr.

1. Bring up (young persons) so as to give intellectual and moral training; to provide schooling for.
(Teaching)
Cult. Sem. Mark. 1 (To provide schooling for).
T.E. educar, 1; instruir, enseñar.

2. To train (person, oneself, a faculty, etc.) so as to develop some special aptitude, taste or disposition.
(Teaching)
T.E. educar, 2.

educar, eãu'kar v.; tr.

1. To bring up (young persons) so as to give intellectual and moral training to. To teach good manners to.
(Teaching) (Behaviour) (Courtesy)
Cult. Sem. Mark. (To teach good manners to)
T.E. educate, 1; to teach good manners to.
2. -- el gusto, el oído, el apetito, etc.
To train so as to develop some special aptitude, taste or disposition.
(Teaching)
T.E. educate, 2.

education, edjw(ɔ)keiʃən n.; u.;

1. The systematic instruction, schooling or training given to the young (and, by extension, to adults) in preparation for the work in life. Also the whole course of scholastic instruction which a person has received.
(Teaching)(Knowledge)
T.E. In Port. Sp. educación, l, as well as instrucción; in Pen.Sp. instrucción.

2. -- in education; -- of education; (As in Department of Education, Professor in Education, Journal of Education.)
Pedagogy. (2)
(Teaching)(Education)
T.E. -- de enseñanza; -- de pedagogía, didáctica; de educación, l.

(1) The second part of this reading is not in use in Pen.Sp. Entered in Morinigo (1966) p. 227. It is considered a Hispanic American Anglicism. Kany, op. cit. (1960) p. 173-4 considers it a "sense-loan". On the other hand, Scatori, "Deceptive Cognates in Spanish", Modern Language Journal, XVI, (1931), p. 398 says, "educación": not so much education= instrucción, but manners, good breeding, politeness. A well educated person is "una persona instruída," but "persona bien educada" is a well-bred person. Scatori also comments "Note that the Ministry of Public Education in Spain is called Ministerio de Instrucción Pública". But, in Argentina the Ministry of Education is called "Ministerio de Educación (y Justicia)". We may conclude that the item "educación", in its English meaning, has been gaining ground (cf. dates of publication) in Hispanic-America.

(2) "Pedagogy" is rare in English

educacion, eðukə'sjən n.; u.; fem.

1. (Port. Sp.) The systematic instruction, schooling or training given to children and to the young (and, by extension, to adults) in preparation for the work in life. Also the whole course of scholastic instruction which a person has received. (1)
(Teaching)(Knowledge)
T.E. education, l.

2. buena --; mala --.
Politeness, breeding.
(Courtesy)(Behaviour)
T.E. manners, politeness, breeding.

/x/ educated, adj. \longleftrightarrow educado-a, adj.

educated, 'edju(ɛ)keitid adj.

1. That has received education; instructed, trained.
(Teaching)(Knowledge)
T.E. culto-a; instruído-a.

educado-a, eɖu'kaðo

adj.; masc.; pos. post-noun.

1. A person who is courteous, who has good manners.
(Behaviour)(Courtesy)
T.E. polite, courteous, well-behaved, well-bred.

educable, adj.

educability, n.

/x/ educational, adj. 136e

educationally, adv.

educationalist, , n.

educationist, n.

educative, adj.

educator, n.

educatress, n. (non-actual)

uneducated, adj. 4e

educacional, adj. (1)

educacionista, n. (1)

educador-a, adj.; n.

educando, n.

educativo-a, adj.

reeducar, v.

reeducação, n.

(1) Not entered in D.R.A.E. Found in Alonso and Morínigo.

egress, n. ↔ egresso, n.
egresar, v.

egress, i:gres n.; u.

1. (Rare) Act of leaving or going out.
(Lit. or Fig.) Way out.
(Departure)
T.E. salida.

egreso, e'greso n.; c.; masc.

1. Act of leaving an educational establishment (in Primary, Secondary and/or Higher Education) at the completion of studies.
(Education)(Departure)
T.E. to leave (an educational establishment at the completion of studies); (Oxf. and Camb.) go down.

2. Debit.
(Accounts)
T.E. debit.

egresar, egre'sar v.; int.

1. (Only in Argentina) (1) -- de la universidad, de la escuela, del colegio.
To leave an educational establishment at the completion of studies.
(Education)(Departure)
T.E. to leave (an educational establishment at the completion of studies.)

(1) cf. Acuerdos, ... vol. II, Academia Argentina de Letras, pp. 251-2, "Algunos tratadistas censuran el empleo del vocablo "egresado" para denominar al alumno que sale de un establecimiento de

(cont.) educación después de haber terminado en él los estudios correspondientes. Se basan en que "egresado" supone la existencia de un verbo "egresar" 'salir', derivado de "egreso", así como "ingresar" 'entrar' proviene de "ingreso" 'entrada' y que "egreso", según el Diccionario de la Academia Española, sólo significa 'salida, partida de descargo', por lo que si esta bien que, en un presupuesto, se hable de los "ingresos y los egresos" para denotar la entrada y salida de fondos, no lo está el hablar, por ejemplo, de los "egresados" de una Facultad.

En realidad, el argumento carece de consistencia. "Egresado", como participio o como sustantivo, llena todos los requisitos necesarios para ser admitido: es de uso corriente, tiene un significado claro y preciso y está bien formado. "egreso" conserva la acepción de 'salida' que posee "egressus" en latín; "egresar", constituido sobre el modelo de "ingresar", forma pareja con este verbo, y expresa la idea de salir como "ingresar" la contraria de entrar, y por último, "egresado", aunque solo se emplee en la República Argentina, permite decir con un solo vocablo lo que, de otra manera, tendríamos que manifestar por medio de un circumloquio. No hay motivo, pues, para desterrar esta palabra de nuestro idioma." Note: the Spanish Academy enters both "egresar" and "egreso" in the Diccionario Manual, as Argentinismos and Chilenismos, but does not include them in the "official" lexicon, i.e. D.R.A.E.

/x/ enrol, v. $\leftarrow \longrightarrow$ enrolar/se, v.

enrol, in'roul v.; tr.

1. -- men in the army; -- somebody as a member of a society, etc.
Put somebody's name on a list or register.
(Commission)(Association)
T.E. enrol, 1 (Cult.Sem.Mark.(Not used in the field of Education); inscribir.

enrolment, n.

enrolar/se, endro'lar v.; tr.

1. Put somebody's name on a list or register of a merchant ship.
(Commission)(Association)
T.E. enrol, 1 (Merchant Navy).
2. Enlist recruits for army, crew, society, etc.
(Commission)
Cult. Sem.Mark. (Not used in Education)
T.E. recruit; enlist.

enrolamiento, n.

explicate, v. \longleftrightarrow explicar, v. 139.

explicate, 'eksplikeit v.; tr.

1. (Very rare) Unravel (a problem) explain; interpret, expound.
(Interpretation)
T.E. explicar, l.

explicar, e kspli'kar v.; tr.

1. a) Make known in detail. Make intelligible.
(Interpretation)
- b) (Education) -- la lección; -- el tema.
To speak about something so as to make it known. To lecture on; to teach.
(Education)(Interpretation)
T.E. a) to explain; b) explain; lecture on; teach; expound.

2. Account for; justify.
(Interpretation)
T.E. explain; justify.

3. ref. Realize, understand something.
(Interpretation)
T.E. realize, understand something.

explicable, adj.

explication, n. (non-actual)

explicative, adj.

explicable, adj.

explicablemente, adv.

explicación, n. 28

...

(cont.)

explicatory, adj.
 inexplicable, adj.
 inexplicably, adv.

explicado-a, adj. 7
 inexplicable, adj.

1. In ability or aptitude, without material or required, but any special kind of action.
 (Intellectually) (Mental)
 E.g. Faculty, I.

2. In ability or aptitude, without material or required, for any special kind of action.
 (Intellectually) (Mental)
 E.g. Faculty, I.

3. Power inherent in the body or an organ, natural function of a body or organ.
 (Power)
 E.g. Faculty, I.

4. Power inherent in the body or an organ, natural function of a body or organ.
 (Power)
 E.g. Faculty, I.

5. (Intellectually) (Mental)
 Power, ability or right of acting independently, a disposition, without action, a function.
 (Intellectually) (Mental)
 E.g. Faculty, I. Power, without action, disposition.

6. (Intellectually) (Mental)
 Power, ability or right of acting independently, a disposition, without action, a function.
 (Intellectually) (Mental)
 E.g. Faculty, I. Power, without action, disposition.

7. (Intellectually) (Mental)
 Power, ability or right of acting independently, a disposition, without action, a function.
 (Intellectually) (Mental)
 E.g. Faculty, I.

8. (Intellectually) (Mental)
 Power, ability or right of acting independently, a disposition, without action, a function.
 (Intellectually) (Mental)
 E.g. Faculty, I.

faculty, n. \leftarrow facultad, n. 41.

faculty 'fækəlti n.; c.

1. An ability or aptitude, whether natural or acquired; for any special kind of action.
(Intellect)(Skill)
T.E. facultad, 1.

2. Power inherent in the body or an organ; natural function or a bodily organ.
(Power)
T.E. facultad, 2.

3. (Ecclesiastical; legal)
Power, liberty or right of doing something. A dispensation, authorisation, a licence.
(Permission)(Religion)(Law)
T.E. facultad, 3; autorización, dispensa.

4. (Education) One of the divisions of learning at a university.
(Education)(Teaching)
T.E. facultad, 4.

facultad, fakul'ta n.; c.; fem.

1. An ability or aptitude, whether natural or acquired, for any special kind of action.
(Intellect)(Skill)
T.E. faculty, 1.

2. Power inherent in the body or an organ; natural function of a bodily organ.
(Power)
T.E. faculty, 2.

3. (Ecclesiastical; legal)
Power, liberty or right of doing something. A dispensation, authorisation, a licence.
(Permission)(Religion)(Law)
T.E. faculty, 3; licence, authorisation, dispensation.

4. (Education) One of the divisions of learning at a university.
(Education)(Teaching)
T.E. faculty, 4.

...

faculty, (cont.)

5. (Education)

- a) (U.S.A.) The whole body of Masters, Doctors, (and occasionally students) in any one of the faculties.
- b) (Great Britain) The body of recognised teachers in a faculty.
(Teaching)(Knowledge)
T.E. a) cuerpo docente, incluyendo en algunos casos, al alumnado; b) profesorado, claustro de profesores. (1)

faculty, v. (non-actual)

faculty, adj.

faculty, adv. (non-actual)

facultar, v.

facultativo-a, adj.; n.

facultativamente, adv.

-
- (1) cf. "Deceptive Demons", Scatori, A. p. 290-1, "McHale specifically condemns the use of "faculty" for "profesorado" as an Anglicism". See also, "La Tira Cómica como Fuente de Anglicismos en Méjico", Matluck, J.A., p. 207, "Facultad" quiere decir "la escuela de una universidad", no el "profesorado" (éste sí que significa "faculty"); and "Cognates Deceptive and Otherwise", Ramson, H.M., p. 60, "Facultad (means) a Department, (la Facultad de Medicina). The "faculty" es el "profesorado"." See also "Deceptive Cognates in Spanish, Scatori, S. (1931), p. 398.

ingress, n. \longleftrightarrow ingresar, v. 19
 ingreso, n. 15

ingress, 'ingres n.; u.
 1. (Very Rare) Going in; right of entrance.
 (Entrance)
 T.E. entrada, derecho de ingreso.

ingreso, 'ingreso n.; c.; masc.
 1. (Education)(Argentina)
 Entrance exam. (1)
 (Education)
 T.E. entrance exam.

2. Intake, entry, money received.
 (Entrance)
 T.E. intake, entry, money received.

ingresar, 'ingresar v.; int.; -- prep. "a";
 "en". (2)

1. a) (Education) To enter (an educational establishment.)
 (Education)(Entrance)
 b) to join, become a member of (a club, an association, etc.)
 (Entrance)(Association)
 T.E. a) to enter (a school, university, etc.); b) to join, to become a member of.

...

ingresar, (cont.)

2. -- dinero en caja.
 To come in (esp. of money)
 T.E. (of money) to enter; to come in.

(1) From "examen de ingreso".

- (2) cf. Portnoy, A. "Notas Sobre la Evolución del Castellano en la Argentina", Bol. de la Academia Argentina de Letras, V., (1938), p. 257, "En casi todos los países hispanoamericanos se prefiere la preposición "a" para los complementos regidos por el verbo "entrar", como en francés, pero no se trata de un régimen afrancesado, sino, conforme lo hizo notar el gran filólogo colombiano Rufino Jose Cuervo, de una reminiscencia gramatical de los escritores clásicos españoles y como tal, de un régimen verbal anticuado. En realidad, Cervantes, Lope de Vega y otras figuras señeras del Siglo de Oro emplean indistintamente las preposiciones "en" y "a" con el verbo "entrar", y con más frecuencia la primera de ellas. Entre los escritores españoles del siglo anterior usa no raramente la forma "entrar a" Fernan Caballero y en nuestro tiempo existen literatos catalanes y vascongados que tampoco la desdennan. Entre nosotros el influjo de la misma forma sintáctica se ha ido profundo pues se ha extendido por analogía y abusivamente a otros verbos como "ingresar", "penetrar", "introducir", que también aquí se construyen con la preposición "a". cf. Kary, American Spanish Syntax, p. 340, "After "entrar" the preposition "en" is today used in standard language meaning 'into' to express motion: "entró en casa". In American Sp., however, the preposition "a" is the rule. The preposition "a" is found with still other verbs having meanings akin to that of "entrar", such as "caer" a la cama, "penetrar" a, "ingresar" a (for "en").

inscribe, v. \longleftrightarrow inscribir, v.

inscribe, in'skraib v.; tr.

1. Write, carve, engrave, letter, words, motto, epitaph, etc. on, in stone, metal, etc.
(Engraving)(Writing)
T.E. inscribir, 1; grabar.

2. Enter name of person on list, in book (esp. for presentation).
(Writing)
T.E. inscribir, 2; firmar una dedicatoria.

inscribir, ɪ'hkri'bir v.; tr.; prep. "en"

1. Write, carve, engrave, letters, words, motto, epitaph, etc. in, on, stone, metal, etc.
(Engraving)(Writing)
T.E. inscribe, 1; engrave, carve.

2. (Used also as ref.)

To enrol, register, (esp. in primary, secondary and higher education).
(Register)

T.E. to enrol, matriculate, register.

inscription, n. $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ inscripción, n.

inscription, in'skripʃən n.; c.

1. Words, letters, characters, motto, epitaph, etc. inscribed.
(Writing)
T.E. inscripción, l; dedicatoria, lema, divisa, epitafio.

inscripción, ɪn'skripʃiən n.; c.; fem.

1. Words, letter, motto, epitaph, etc., inscribed.
(Writing)
T.E. inscripción, l; motto; epitaph.

2. a) (Education) Act of enrolling; matriculation, registration.
(Register)(Education)

b) to enrol.

(Register)

T.E. a) enrolment, registration, matriculation; b) to enrol, put one's name down for something.

inscribable, adj.

inscriptive, adj.

inscriptional, adj.

inscribible, adj.

inscripto-a, adj.

inscrito-a, adj.

D.R.A.E.'s entries: "inscribir" a) Impresionar; b) (For.) Tomar razón, en algún registro, de los documentos o declaraciones que han de asentarse en él según las leyes.; c) (Geom.) Trazar una figura dentro de otra, de modo que, sin cortarse ni confundirse, estén ambas en contacto en varios puntos de sus perímetros."; "inscripción" a) anotación, o asiento del gran libro de la deuda pública, en que el Estado, reconoce la obligación de satisfacer una renta perpetua correspondiente a un capital recibido; b) documento o título que expide el Estado para acreditar esta obligación; c) (Num.) Letrero rectilíneo en las monedas y medallas", have been omitted.

institute, n. \longleftrightarrow instituto, n. 27
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institute, 'institju:t n.; c.

1. A society or organisation instituted to promote, literature, science, art, education, or the like.
(Education)(Knowledge)
T.E. instituto, 1;

instituto, tʃti'kuto n.; c.; masc.

1. A society or organisation instituted to promote literature, science, art, education, or the like.
(Education)(Knowledge)
T.E. institute, 1.
2. -- del Profesorado.
Training college for secondary teachers and teachers of special subjects.
(Education)(Teaching)
T.E. college of education; training college.

S.O.E.D. and D.R.A.E.'s entry: "Something instituted. An established law, custom, usage, etc." has been omitted.

/x/ institute, v. \longleftrightarrow instituir, v.

institute, 'insti:kju:t v.; tr.

1. Set up, establish, found.
(Production)(Beginning)
T.E. instituir, 1; crear, fundar.

2. To establish (person) in an office,
charge or position. To appoint a
person as ...
(Choice)
T.E. instituir, 2; nombrar.

institutional, adj.

institutionalism, n.

institutionalist, n.

institutionalize, v.

institutionary, adj. (rare)

institutive, adj.

institutively, adv.

institutress, n. (non-actual)

institutrix, n. (non-actual)

destitute, adj.

destitution, n.

instituir, 'thi'twɪr v. tr.

1. Set up, establish, found.
(Production)(Beginning)
T.E. institue, 1;

2. To establish (person) in an office,
charge or position.
Appoint a person as...
(Choice)
T.E. appoint; nominate, *institure*, 2,

institución, n. 34

institucional, adj.

instituidor-a, adj.

instituir, v.

instituta, n(Law)

institutor-a, adj.

institutriz, n.

instituyente, adj.

destitución, n.

destituido-a, adj.

destituir, v.

instruct, v. $\leftarrow \longrightarrow$ instruir, v.

instruct, in'strakt v.; tr.

1. To teach, impart knowledge to.
(Teaching)
T.E. instruir, 1; enseñar.

2. To inform (person that, when, etc.)
(Information)
T.E. instruir, 2 (rare); informar.

3. Give orders or directions to
somebody.
(Command)
T.E. dar instrucciones, órdenes.

instruir, ɪn'stɹu'ir v. tr.

1. To teach, impart knowledge, ideas or doctrines to somebody.
(Teaching)
T.E. instruct, 1; indoctrinate.

2. (Rare)
To inform person about something.
(Information)
T.E. instruct, 2; inform.

D.R.A.E.'s entry: "Formalizar un proceso o expediente conforme a las reglas de derecho y prácticas legales", has been omitted.

/x/ instruction, n. \longleftrightarrow instruccíon, n. 28

instruction, instruksjon n.; u.

1. Teaching; training.
(Teaching)
T.E. instruccíon, l; enseñanza.

instrucción, instruksjon n.; u.; fem.

1. Whole course of scholastic instruction that a person has received. Knowledge acquired. (See education, for Port.Sp. usage).
(Education)(Knowledge)
T.E. education, l; knowledge; learning.

2. pl. Directions, orders.
(Command)
T.E. instrucciones, 2; órdenes.

2. pl. Directions, orders.
(Command)
T.E. instructions, 2; directions, orders.

instructional, adj.

instructive, adj.

instructively, adv.

instructiveness, n.

instructor, n.

instructress, n. (rare)

/x/ uninstructed, adj.

instruictivamente, adv.

instruictivo-a, adj.

instruictor-a, n.

instruictó-a, adj. 9

D.R.A.E.'s entry: "Curso que sigue un proceso o expediente que se está formando o instituyendo; Conjunto de reglas o advertencias para algún fin; Reglamento en que predominan las disposiciones técnicas o explicativas para el cumplimiento de un servicio administrativo." have been omitted.

/x/ lecture, n.; v. \longleftrightarrow lectura, n. 50.

lecture, 'lektʃə n.; c.

1. A discourse before an audience or class (e.g. in a university) upon a given subject, usually for the purpose of instruction. (Teaching) (Public Speaking) T.E. (in a university) clase; (public speaking) conferencia, disertación.

lecture,

v.; t.; int.

1. To deliver a lecture or lectures to or before an audience. (Public Speaking) (Teaching) T.E. (teaching) dar clase; dictar cátedra; (public speaking) dar o dictar una conferencia.
2. To admonish, rebuke, reprimand. (Disapprobation) T.E. reprehender, regañar, sermonear, (Port. Sp.) retar. (1)

(1) cf. Morínigo, p. 562.

lectura, lek'tura n.; c.; fem.

1. A reading. That which is read (Reading) (Public Speaking) (Silent Reading) T.E. A reading; a reading-text; that which is read.

2. (Printing) A type of letter. (Printing) T.E. pica, (a type of letter).

lecturer, n. lector, n. ← → lector-a, n. 94.
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lecturer, 'lektʃərə

n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. One who gives a lecture or lectures; specially one appointed to deliver a course of lectures in a university or college, especially as subordinate to a professor.
(Teaching)(Public Speaking)
T.E. (Public speaking) conferenciasta;
(Port. Sp.) conferenciante; disertante; (in a university) profesor.

lector,

n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. (Education) In foreign language teaching (especially in Modern Languages Departments at Universities) lecturer who is a native speaker of the language taught.
(Education)(Teaching)
T.E. (Pen.Sp.) lector-a, 1.

masc.

2. (Ecclesiastical) (Rare) An ecclesiastic belonging to one of the minor orders, who read the lessons.
(Religion)
T.E. lector, 2.

lector-a, (1)

lector-a, lek'tor

n.; c.; masc.

1. (Pen.Sp.) In foreign language teaching lecturer who is a native speaker of the language taught.
Cult. Sem.Mark. (Not used in Port. Sp.)
T.E. lector, 1.

2. (Ecclesiastical) (Rare) An ecclesiastic belonging to one of the minor orders, who read the lesson.
(Religion)
T.E. lector, 2.

...

(1) Morínigo enters "lector": (Traducción del inglés lecturer), m. Amer. Cierta categoría de catedrático de una universidad norteamericana." This does not apply to Port. Sp. Notice too, that Morínigo a) does not consider the semantic markers (Male)(Female) of lecturer and b) restricts lecturer to U.S.A.

lector-a, (cont.)

3. Person who reads.
(Vision)(Public Speaking)(Silent
Reading)
T.E. reader, person who reads

lectern, n.

lectureship, n.

lectivo-a, adj.

lectorado, n.

lectoral, adj.

lectoría, n.

lectoría, n.

D.R.A.E.'s entries: "lectura: a) en las universidades, tratado o materia que un catedrático o maestro explica a sus discípulos, b) cultura o conocimiento de una persona". "lector: ant. catedrático o maestro que enseñaba una facultad.", have been omitted.

lesson, n. 218e \longleftrightarrow lección, n. 39.

lesson, 'lesn n.; c.

1. Amount of teaching given at one time.
(Teaching),
T.E. lección, 1.

2. Thing, portion of text, etc. to be learnt by pupil.
(Learning),
T.E. lección, 2.

3. (Protestant Churches) Portion of scripture read at divine service.
The first lesson is generally from the Old Testament and the second from the New Testament.
(Religion)
T.E. En las iglesias protestantes (ver lección, 3) lectura de las Sagradas Escrituras, que se lee durante el Servicio religioso. La primera lectura es generalmente del Antiguo Testamento y la segunda del Nuevo Testamento.

lección, lek'sjon n.; c.; fem.

1. Amount of teaching given at one time.
(Teaching)
T.E. lesson, 1.

2. Thing, portion of text, etc. to be learnt by pupil.
(Learning)
T.E. lesson, 2.

3. (Catholic Church) Portion of lives of the Saints, etc. read or sang during mass or at matins at the end of each nocturne. (See lesson, 3.)
(Religion)
T.E. In Catholic Churches, portion of Scripture, lives of the Saints, etc. read or sang during mass or at matins at the end of each nocturne.

...

lesson, (cont.)

4. (Figurative) Occurrence, example, rebuke or punishment that serves as encouragement or warning.
(Learning)(Warning)(Disapprobation)
T.E. lección, 4.

lección, (cont.)

4. (Figurative) Occurrence, example, rebuke or punishment that serves as encouragement or warning.
(Learning)(Warning)(Disapprobation)
T.E. lesson, 4.

dar la lección, Recitation of the lesson by a pupil so that the teacher may check whether he has learnt it or not.

dar lección, (1) explain a lesson to the pupils. Give a lesson on ...

dar una lección, give somebody a lesson.

tomar la lección, to listen (the teacher) to the lesson as recited by the pupil to check whether he has learnt it or not.

...

(1) cf. "dictar una clase, una conferencia, una cátedra, un curso, un cursillo", cf. Portnoy, op. cit. p. 263.

(cont.)

tomar lecciones, to take lessons in...

lecciones particulares, private lessons.

aleccionamiento, n.

aleccionador-a, adj.

aleccionar, v.

leccionario, n.

leccionista, n. (Pen.Sp.)

licentiate, n. ← → licenciado-a, adj.; n.
licensee, n.

licentiate, lai'senjiit n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. Holder of a university licence or attestation of competence from collegiate or examining body to practise a specified profession. (Education)(Teaching)
T.E. licenciado-a, 1.

2. masc.

(Religion) In the Presbyterian Church licensed preacher not yet having appointment.
(Religion)

T.E. En la iglesia presbiteriana, pastor que aun no ha sido destinado a una iglesia pero que está autorizado a predicar.

licenciado-a, (1) lisensi'aðo n.; c.; masc.

1. Holder of a university licence or attestation of competence from collegiate or examining body to practise a specified profession. (Education)(Teaching)
T.E. licentiate, 1.

2. -- del ejercito. masc.

A soldier who has been discharged after completing military service.
(Combatant)(Liberation)

T.E. soldier who has been discharged after completing military service.

licenciado-a, lisensi'aðo adj.; post-/pre-noun pos.

1. Deducible meaning.

...

(1) In Pen.Sp. "licenciado" is masc./fem.

(cont.)

licensee, *laisən'si:* n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. One to whom a licence is granted especially to sell liquor.

(Commission)

T.E. concesionario-a. Dueño-a de un bar o despacho de bebidas, hotel, etc. que posee autorización o permiso para vender bebidas.

licence, n.

license, v.

licensed, adj.

licenser, n.

licentiateship, n.

licentious, adj.

licentiously, adv.

licentiousness, n.

licencia, n.

licenciamiento, n.

licenciar, v.

licensiosamente, adv.

licensioso-a, adj.

licenciatura, n.

D.R.A.E.'s entries: "El que viste hábitos largos o traje de estudiante.b) Tratamiento que se da a los abogados", and adj. "Dícese de la persona que se precia de entendida.", have been omitted.

lyceum, n. \longleftrightarrow liceo, n.
lycee, n.

lycee, 'li:sei n.; c.

1. (Rare) In France, a secondary school maintained by the State, as distinct from a college or secondary school maintained by the municipality.
(Education)(Teaching)(Learning)
T.E. liceo frances, escuela secundaria perteneciente a la municipalidad.

liceo, li'seo n.; c.; masc.

1. In Argentina, a secondary school (in both Private and Public Education) for girls (l) or a military or naval secondary school for boys.
(Education)(Teaching)(Learning)(Navy)(Army)
T.E. In Argentina, a secondary school (in both Private and Public Education) for girls or a military or naval secondary school for boys.

lyceum, lai'siam n.; u.

1. (Rare)(Very restricted usage)
Name of a garden with covered walks at Athens in which Aristotle taught. Hence, the Aristotelian philosophy and its adherents.
(Teaching)(Philosophy)
T.E. liceo, l. (rare)

2. (Rare)(Very restricted usage)

Name of a garden with covered walks at Athens in which Aristotle taught. Hence, the Aristotelian philosophy and its adherents.
(Teaching)(Philosophy)
T.E. lyceum, l. (rare)

-
- (1) Though widely in use in Argentina, the Argentine Academy condemns the item as an unnecessary Galicism. cf., Acuerdos..., p. 208 "En la República Argentina (liceo) designaba solamente,

...

(cont.) hasta hace pocos años, un establecimiento de segunda enseñanza para mujeres análogo al "lycee des jeunes filles" francés y equivalente a nuestro colegio nacional. Desde 1939 se han organizado los liceos militares General San Martín, General Belgrano, General Paz y General Espejo y el Liceo Naval Almirante Brown, que tiene por objeto formar bachilleres que poseen a la vez la preparación necesaria para ser oficiales de reserva. En verdad, la palabra "liceo" es un galicismo innecesario y puede ser reemplazada ventajosamente por la de "colegio". Morínigo, op. cit. p. 360 ignora the "liceos militares" and defines the item as "establecimientos de instrucción secundaria para señoritas."

/x/ master, n.; v.; 782e ↔ maestro-a, adj. 8
maestro-a, n. 130
maestrar, v.

master, 'ma:sta

n.; c.; masc.

1. -- at St. Paul's, etc.

A secondary school teacher, esp.
in a Public School.
(Teaching)

T.E. (Primary Education) maestro;
(Secondary Education) profesor;

El vocablo "master" se usa en
inglés generalmente para designar
un maestro de escuela privada y
va generalmente acompañado del
nombre del colegio, ej. John is
a master at St. Paul's.

2. -- craftsman, mason, etc.
(Restricted Use) A skilled workman;
or one in business on his own account.
(Skill)

T.E. maestro, 2. a)

maestro-a, ma'estro

n.; c.; masc.

1. A primary school teacher. (in Public
and Private Education)
(Teaching)

T.E. primary school teacher.

2. -- albañil, carpintero, etc.

a) A skilled workman; or one in
business on his own account.

b) (Port. Sp.) Form of address for
an unknown, generally elderly,
person who is thought to be a
skilled workman. Generally used
in isolation.

(Skill)

T.E. a) master, 2; b) (Port. Sp.)

Form of address for an unknown,
generally elderly, person who is
thought to be a skilled workman.

master, (cont.)

3. An artist of distinguished skill; one who is regarded as a model of excellence in his art.
(Skill)(Art)
T.E. maestro, 3.

4. -- of the Ordnance; -- in Chancery;
-- of the Rolls; -- of Ceremonies.
As a title of office.
(Title)

T.E. maestro, 4; es vocablo usado como parte de un título. El título varía de acuerdo al cargo y la traducción varía de acuerdo con el título completo. ej. master of ceremonies maestro de ceremonias; Master of the Rolls, Archivero General (Cassell)

5. A man having control or authority of a household, ship, horse, etc.
(Authority)
T.E. amo; señor, dueño; (of a ship) patrón, capitán.

maestro-a, (cont.)

3. An artist of distinguished skill; one who is regarded as a model of excellence in his art.
(Skill)(Art)
T.E. master, 3.

4. -- de ceremonias, de caballería, etc.
As a title of office.
(Title)
T.E. master, 4; the translation varies according to the full title.

5. A great composer, teacher or conductor. (1)
(Musician)(Teaching)
T.E. maestro, 1.

...

(1) Not entered in D.R.A.E. Found in Alonso, Lexis, Morínigo and Moliner. Undoubtedly an Italianism. Very common in Port. Sp. cf. La Nación, January 15th, 1968, p. 5. "El Consejo Directivo del Teatro Colón ha contratado al maestro Romano Gandolfi, vinculado a la Scala de Milan, según señala la información correspondiente, para actuar como director del Coro Estable durante la temporada de 1968."

master, (cont.)

6. -- John Peter, etc.
As a title of compliment,
(esp. by servants and inferiors)
to the names of boys or young men
not old enough for Mr.
(Title)
T.E. (Pen.Sp.) señorito (Juan, Pedro, etc.)
or el señorito (if an only son); (Port.
Sp.) niño (Juan, Pedro, etc) or el
niño (if an only son).
Cult. Sem.Mark. (In Spanish the title is
used for unmarried sons, and is not
restricted as regards age.) (1)

maestro-a, (cont.)

adj.; post-noun
pos.

1. obra --.
Said of a consummate piece of work-
manship.
(Skill)(Art)
T.E. masterpiece.
2. perro --; halcón --.
Said of trained animals.
(Training)(Teaching)
T.E. said of a trained animal.

maestro, n.; c.; masc.

1. A great composer, teacher or conductor.
(Musician)(Teacher)
T.E. maestro, 5.

(1) cf. Morfínigo, op. cit, p. 423, "Tratamiento de respeto y subordinación que la gente de servicio y otras personas humildes dan a sus amos o personas socialmente superiores, sobre todo si éstas son solteras". Kany, Semantics, p. 21., "Servants in particular are likely to address unmarried children of a household as "niño" or "niña" regardless of age".

master, 'ma:stə

v.; tr.

1. To get the better of; overcome or defeat; break, tame (an animal) to reduce to subjection.
(Skill)(Power)(Strength)
T.E. dominar, conquistar, someter;
domar, amansar.

2. To acquire complete knowledge of (subject) or complete facility in using (an instrument)
(Skill)(Knowledge)
T.E. dominar, conocer o saber a fondo.

amaestrar, amaest'rar v.; tr.

1. To teach or train animals.
(Teaching)
T.E. to train (animals).

Č.O.D.'s entries: "To rule as a master, to be the master of (a servant, house, etc) and To address by the title of master" have been omitted.

/x/ mistress, n. \longleftrightarrow maestra, n. 5.

mistress, 'mistris n.; c.; fem.

1. school--; music --.
A female teacher. Now only, one engaged in a school or teaching a special subject, as music, etc.
(Teaching)
T.E. (Primary Education) maestra, 1;
(Secondary Education and Special Subjects) profesora.

2. A woman with whom a man has illicit sexual intercourse.
(Unchastity)
T.E. amante, querida.

maestra, m'letra n.; c.; fem.

1. Woman who teaches in a primary school.
(Teaching)
T.E. primary school teacher.

2. -- de la vida; etc.
(Figurative)
Thing which instructs or teaches.
(Teaching)
T.E. that which instruct or teaches;
see school, 2 and escuela, 3.

D.R.A.E.'s entry "Mujer del maestro" has been omitted.

masterdom, n.
 masterful, adj. 10e
 masterfully, adv
 masterhood, n.
 masterless, adj.
 masterliness, n.
 masterlike, adj.
 masterly, adv. 22e
 mastery, n. 18e
 mastership, n.

maestradamente, adv.
 maestrado-a, adj.
 amaestrador-a, adj.; n.
 maestradgo, n. (non-actual)
 maestradamente, adv. (NON-ACTUAL)
 maestralizar, v. (NON-ACTUAL)
 maestramente, adv. (NON-ACTUAL)
 maestrado-a, adj. (NON-ACTUAL)
 maestraje, n. (Nautical)
 maestral, adj. (non-actual)
 maestralizar, v. (non-actual)
 maestrante, n. (Nautical and Military) (non-actual)
 maestranza, n.
 maestrar, v. (non-actual)
 maestrazgo, n. (non-actual)
 maestres, n. (non- actual)
 maestrear, v. (NON-ACTUAL)
 maestría, n..
 maestril, adj. (Apiculture)
 maestrillo, n. (Pen.Sp.) (Pejorative)
 maestrito-a, n. (Port.Sp.) (Pejorative)
 magistral, adj.
 magistralmente, adv.

matriculate, v. \longleftrightarrow matricular, v. 6.

matriculate, matrikjuleit v.; tr.

1. (Higher Education) To enrol as a member of a university or college.
Pass examination entitling to university membership.
(Register)(Education)
T.E. matricular/se (In Port. Sp. less common than inscribir/se);
inscribir/se en la universidad u otro instituto de enseñanza superior; pasar el examen de ingreso a una universidad.

matricular, matrikullarse v.; tr.

1. (Nautical) To register a merchant ship in the corresponding maritime district.
(Register)(Navigation)
T.E. to register a merchant ship in the corresponding maritime district.
2. (Generally used as ref.)(In Port. Sp. less common than inscribir/se)
To enrol, register in an educational establishment.
(Education)(Register)
T.E. (Higher Education) matriculate; register.

matriculation, n. \longleftrightarrow matrícula, n.

matriculation, *matrīkjuļeīṣon* n.; c.

1. Act of matriculating.
(Register)(Education)
T.E. inscripción.

2. -- card.
Certificate of enrolment at a
University, etc.
(Register)(Education)
Cult. Sem. Mark. (In Education
Restricted to Higher Education)
T.E. matrícula (universitaria)

matriculatory, adj.

matrícula, *mat'rikula* n.; c.; fem.

1. a) A list or register of persons
belonging to an order, society or
the like.
(Register)(List)
T.E. register.

- b) (Education) Certificate of enrol-
ment at, an academy, institute,
school, university, etc.
(Education)(Register)
T.E. matriculation card.

matriculado-a, adj.

matriculador, n.

matter, n. 1598e \longleftrightarrow materia, n. 50.
 matter, v. 12% of 1598e

matter, 'mætə

n.; u.

1. Substance(s) of which/physical thing is made. (contrasted with mind, spirit, etc.)
 (Materiality)
 T.E. materia, 1.

2. Material for thought or expression; substance for book, speech, etc., contrasted with the form or style.
 (Topic)
 T.E. materia, 2; asunto, tema.

3. c. Something to which attention is given; piece of business, affair.
 (Business)(Occupation)(Motivation)
 (Inducement)
 T.E. materia, 3; motivo, causa.

4. u.; purulent discharge; pus.
 (excretion)
 T.E. materia, 4. (Not so common as pus)

materia, mæ'terjə

n.; u.; fem.

1. Substance(s) of which a physical thing is made. (contrasted with mind, spirit, etc.)
 (Materiality)
 T.E. matter, 1.

2. Material for thought or expression. Substance for a book, speech, etc., contrasted with form or style.
 (Topic)
 T.E. matter, 2.

3. Something to which attention is given; piece of business; affair.
 (Business)(Occupation)(Motivation)
 (Inducement)
 T.E. matter, 3.

4. (Not so common as pus) Purulent discharge; pus.
 (Excretion)
 T.E. matter, 4; pus.

matter, (cont.)

5. a) printed --; b) postal --.
- a) Something printed or written
(Usu. on a thing sent by post,
to show that it goes out at a
rate cheaper than for ordinary
letters, etc.)
- b) Everything sent by post.
(Correspondence) (Writing) (Printing)
T.E. a) impreso. Al escribir "printed
matter" en cartas, paquetes, etc.
el franqueo tiene tarifa reducida.
b) todo aquéllo que puede ser
enviado por correo.

matter, *matē* v.; int.

1. (Chiefly in interrogative, negative
and conditional sentences.)
Be of importance, signify. (Especially
in the negative.)
T.E. importar, ser de consecuencia,
hacer al caso.

2. (Medicine) Secrete or discharge pus.
(Excretion)
T.E. supurar, formar pus.

immaterial, adj.

immateriality, n.

materia,

n.; c.; fem.

5. (Education) Subject to be studied.
(Superordinate term)
(Education) (Learning) (Teaching)
T.E. subject, l.

immaterial, adj.

immaterialidad, n.

...

inmaterialize, v.

material, n. 876

material, adj. 18% of 876

materialise-ze, v.

materialism, n.

materiality, n.

materially, adv.

material, adj. 22

materialidad, n.

materialismo, n.

materialista, adj.; n.

materializar, v.

materialmente, adv.

principal, adj. \longleftrightarrow principal, adj. 84
/x/ principal, n. \longleftrightarrow principal, n. 8

principal, prɪnsɪ'pal adj.; --N masc./fem.
pre-/post-noun pos.

1. Most important, chief, first in rank.
(Superiority)(Importance)
T.E. principal, 1.

principal, prɪnsɪ'pal n.; c.; masc.

1. (Commerce) Money lent, put into business,
etc. on which interest is payable.
(Money)
T.E. principal, 1.

2. Person for whom another acts as agent
in business.
(Business)(Deputy)(Agent)
T.E. principal, 2.

principal, prɪnsəpəl adj._{first}

1. Most important, chief/in rank.
(Superiority)(Importance)
T.E. principal, 1.

principal, prɪnsəpəl n.; c.;

1. (Commerce) Money lent, put into
business etc., on which interest
is payable.
(Money)
T.E. principal, 1; capital.

2. masc./fem. Person for whom another
acts as agent in business.
(Business)(Deputy)(Agent)
T.E. principal, 2.; poderdante.

3. masc./fem. Head of college, school, etc.
(Education)
T.E. (Primary Education) director-a, 1;
(Secondary Education) director-a, 1;
rector-a, 1; (Higher Education) rec-
tor-a, 1.

...

principally, adv

principalmente, adv.

D.R.A.E.'s entries: "Jefe de una casa de comercio, fábrica, almacén, etc; En las plazas de armas, cuerpo de la guardia situado ordinariamente en el centro de la población, para dar pronto auxilio a las providencias de policía o de justicia, y para comunicar la orden y el santo diariamente a los demás puestos de guardia de la guarnición", have been omitted. Hornby's entries: "Person directly responsible for a crime (distinguished from an abettor or accessory); Main girder or rafter on a roof," have been omitted.

/x/ professor, n. \longleftrightarrow profesor-a, n. 49.
profesante, n.

professor, *profesa* n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. A public teacher (of the highest rank on the scale of university teachers) in a specific faculty or branch of learning; one who holds a chair at a university.

(Education) (Teaching)
Cult. Sem. Mark. (Higher Education)
(Highest Rank on scale of University Teachers)

T.E. profesor-a; profesor de la cátedra;
catedrático-a (Not so common in Port. Sp.)

profesor-a, *profe'sor* n.; c.; masc.

1. Person who teaches in Primary (only special subjects), Secondary or Higher Education. (1)
(Education) (Teaching)

Cult. Sem. Mark. (All stages in Education)
(No distinction as to hierarchical status)

T.E. (Primary, Secondary Education)

teacher; (masc.) schoolmaster;

(Public Schools) master; (fem.)

schoolmistress; (Public Schools

and private tuition) mistress;

(Higher Education) university

teacher; assistant lecturer,

lecturer, senior lecturer, reader,

professor; (Oxford and Cambridge)

don.

(1) cf. Ramson (1955), p. 60, "Profesores and Profesoras are teachers in primary schools as well as in institutions of higher learning."

professor, (cont.)

2. -- of Christianity, of a doctrine, etc.
 One who makes open declaration of his sentiments, beliefs, etc.; one who professes.
 (Assent)
 T.E. profesante; el que profesa.

profess, v.
 professed, adj.
 professedly, adv.
 /x/ profession, n. 152e
 professional, adj. 214e
 professionally, adv.
 professionalism, n.
 professionalist, n.
 professionalize, v.
 professorate, n.
 professorial, adj.
 professorially, adv.
 professoriate, n.
 professorship, n.

profesante, n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. One who makes an open declaration of his sentiments, beliefs, etc.; one who professes.
 (Assent)
 T.E. one who professes; professor, 2.

profesar, v. 6
 profesion, n. 35
 profesional, adj. 29
 profesional, n. 6
 profesionalismo, n.
 profeso-a, adj.
 profesorado, n.
 profesoral, adj.

/x/ pupil, n. 152e \longleftrightarrow pupilo-a, n.

pupil, 'pju:p|

n.; c.;

1. The circular opening appearing as a black spot in the centre of the eye, which expands and contracts in regulating the passage of light through the retina.
(Vision)
T.E. pupila, 1.

pupila, pupi|a

n.; c.; fem.

1. The circular opening appearing as a black spot in the centre of the eye, which expands and contracts in regulating the passage of light through the retina.
(Vision)
T.E. pupil, 1.
2. A prostitute.
(Unchastity)
T.E. prostitute.

pupil, 'pju:p|

n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. a) One who is taught by another.
(Education)
T.E. alumno-a
- b) -- teacher. Boy, girl teaching in elementary school under head-teacher and concurrently receiving general education from him or elsewhere.
(Education)
T.E. practicante.

pupilo-a, pu'pi|o

n.; c.; masc.

1. a) (Argentine, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay) Boy or girl at boarding school.
(Education)
T.E. boarder.
- b) medio-a --
Day boarder.
(Education)
T.E. day-boarder.

...

pupil(1)age, n.

pupil(1)arity, n. (non-actual)

pupil(1)ary, adj. (non-actual)

pupilaje, n.

pupilar, adj.

pupilerero-a, n. (Pen.Sp.)

D.R.A.E.'s entry: "pupila: Huerfano-a menor de edad respecto de su tutor.; Persona que se hospeda en casa particular por precio ajustado". and C.O.D.'s "Person below age of puberty and under the care of guardian", have been omitted.

qualify, 'kwɔlifai

v.; tr.

1. -- for being, doing; -- for profession, post, etc.

Acquire or possess specified degree of knowledge, etc.; to undertake career or profession; make or become competent or legally empowered.

(Preparation)(Teaching)

T.E. adquirir o poseer el título necesario

para ejercer una carrera u profesión;

ser apto o hacerse idóneo, capaz, competente

para algún trabajo, carrera, oficio u profesión.

2. Modify (as in grammar); make conditional; limit, lessen, moderate.

(Circumscription)(Qualification)(Change)

T.E. calificar, 2 a); modificar; moderar,

limitar, restringir, suavizar, templar.

calificar, kalifi'kar

v.; tr.

1. To judge or determine the qualities or circumstances of person or thing.

Hence, in Education, to mark (a paper, test, essay, etc.) or, to give marks

to person for work, lesson, paper,

essay, etc. (In Port. Sp. "clasificar"

2), though condemned by the Academy

(1), is also used in this sense.)

(Teaching)(Qualification)

T.E. to judge or determine the quality of a person or thing; to mark.

2. a) (Grammar) modify .

(Qualification)

b) (of a person or thing) to attribute

a certain quality to a person or

thing.

(Qualification)

T.E. a) to modify, qualify, 2.

b) to attribute a certain quality to a person or thing.

(1) cf. Acuerdos, II, p. 251, "Se comete una impropiedad cuando se usa la voz "clasificación" para indicar la nota que se pone a un alumno. "clasificación" es la acción y efecto de "clasificar", esto es, ordenar o disponer por clases. Por lo tanto no se clasifica al educando sino se lo califica cuando se juzga su conducta, saber o capacidad."

qualification, n. 29e ↔ calificación, n. 6.

qualification, kwolifik'ejsən

n.; c.

1. a) Degree which enables a person to take up post, office, etc.
 - b) Quality fitting person or thing for post, etc. Condition that must be fulfilled before right can be acquired or office held. (Teaching)(Choice)(Preparation)(Skill)
- T.E. a) títulos, antecedentes, etc. que atestiguan la idoneidad;
b) cualidad, requisito, condición, capacidad, idoneidad.

2. a) Modification, recognition of contingency, restricting or limiting circumstance.

- b) Exenuation.
(Qualification)(Circumscription)(Change)
- T.E. a) modificación, restricción, calificación, 2; b) mitigación, atenuación, disminución.

calificación, kalifik'a'sjən

n.; c.; fem.

1. Unit of numerical award of merit in examination, lesson, etc; mark. (Marks in the educational system of Argentina are from 0-10; alphabetical symbols are not used. The hierarchy is as follows: 0-3, reprobado; 4-5, bueno, 6-7, muy bueno; 8-9, distinguido; 10, sobresaliente. (Teaching)(Classification)
- Cult. Sem. Mark. (Marking is via numerical units. (from 0-10.)
T.E. mark.

2. a) (Grammar) Modification.
(Qualification)

T.E. modification.

- b) Act of judging or determining the qualities or circumstances of person or thing.
(Qualification)
T.E. judgment.

...

disqualification, n.
 disqualified, adj.
 disqualify, v.
 qualificatory, adj.

calificado-a, adj. 9
 calificable, adj.
 calificadamente, adv.
 calificador-a, adj.; n.
 calificativo-a, adj.
 descalificar, v.
 descalificado-a, adj. (1)
 descalificación, n. (1)

(1) Not entered in D.R.A.E.

rector, n. ← → rector-a, adj.
rector-a, n. 12.

rector, rek'ta n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. Head of a college. (see college, 3)
In Oxford only the Heads of Exeter and Lincoln.

(Teaching)
T.E. rector de un "colegio" (en la acepción del siglo XIII) universitario. En Oxford rector de los "colegios" de Exeter y Lincoln.

2. In Scottish universities, a man or woman (generally a well known public figure) elected by the students, and who ex officio presides over the university Court. His term of office lasts three years.
(Education)

T.E. en las universidades escocesas, persona de reconocida actuación pública, electa por el estudiantado, que ex officio preside el Consejo Directivo de una universidad. La duración del cargo es de tres años.

rector-a, rek'tor n.; c.; masc.

1. Head of secondary schools affiliated to the university; of training colleges, or of universities.

(Teaching)
T.E. (Secondary Education) headmaster, (fem.) headmistress; in Scotland, head-teacher; in some schools, rector, 3; (Higher Education) Principal of a training college or university; (England) Vice-Chancellor.

rector-a, rek'tor adj.; post-noun pos.

1. Person or thing that governs or directs.
(Direction)(Management)
T.E. person or thing that governs or directs.

...

rector, (cont.)

3. masc. In some secondary schools in Scotland, headmaster.
(Teaching)
T.E. rector, l; (en Escocia y sólo en algunos establecimientos de enseñanza secundaria.)

rectress, n. (non-actual)

rectorial, adj.; n.

rectorship, n.

rectory, n.

rectress, n. (non-actual)

rectoral, adj.

rectorado, n.

rectorar, v.

rectoría, n.

D.R.A.E.'s entry: "Párroco o cura propio (Moliner, en algunos sitios, cura párroco)" and C.O.D.'s "Incumbent of parish still in enjoyment of tithes", have been omitted.

scholar, n. \longleftrightarrow escolar, adj.; n.

scholar, 'skɔlə n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. A learned or erudite person.
(Intellectual)(Knowledge)
T.E. estudioso-a, erudito-a.

2. Student who, after a competitive examination or other means of selection, is awarded money or other help so that he may attend school (Private), or college, university or pursue further education.
(Student)
T.E. becario-a

escolar, eħkɔ'lar n.; c.; masc.

1. School-boy or girl.
(Student)(Education)
Cult. Sem.Mark. (In Primary Education)
T.E. school-boy or girl.

escolar, eħkɔ'lar adj.; --N masc./fem.;
post-noun pos.

1. Pertaining to schools.
(Education)
T.E. school -- (in compounds); pertaining to schools.

/x/ school, n. 1352e ↔ escuela, n. 100.
school, v. 1% of 1352e

school, sku:l

n.; c.

1. a) An institution in which instruction (Primary and/or Secondary) is given.
- b) An institution in which some specialized training is given. e.g. -- of music, of art, etc.
- c) In Higher Education the word "school" applies to a group of allied subjects. e.g. School of Oriental Studies, of African Languages, etc.

(Education) (Learning)

T.E. a) escuela primaria o secundaria; (ver tambien colegio);

b) escuela, ej. escuela de baile, musica, etc.

c) a nivel universitario la palabra "school" se utiliza para designar un establecimiento donde se enseñan materias afines, ej. Escuela de Lenguas Africanas.

escuela, ehkwela

n.; c.; fem.

1. (General Usage) establishment in which instruction of any kind is given. (In Primary, Secondary and Higher Education). When "escuela" is used for an establishment in secondary, higher or special education (both Public and Private) it is followed by an adjunct. e.g. Escuela Superior de Guerra, Escuela de Caminos (Facultad de Ingeniería). (See colegio, footnote, 2)
(Education)
T.E. school, 1, a), b) and c).

2. (Restricted Usage) an establishment in which boys or girls or both receive primary education. (Public and Private Education)
(Education)
T.E. school, 1, a) (Restricted to Primary Education)

...

school, (cont.)

2. -- for scandal, school of life.
A place, environment etc. where one gains instruction; a person or thing regarded as a source of instruction or training.
(Education)
T.E. escuela, 3.; (see maestra, 2)

3. The body of persons that are or have been taught by a particular master (in philosophy, science, etc) hence, a body or succession of persons who are disciples of the same master, or are united by a general similarity of methods or principles; also, a type or brand of doctrine or practice.
(Education)(Philosophy)(Art)
T.E. escuela, 4.

4. A shoal or large number of fish, swimming together whilst feeding or migrating.
(Assemblage)
T.E. cardumen, banco (de peces).

escuela, (cont.)

3. -- de la vida; -- de la desgracia.
A place, environment, etc. where one gains instruction; a person or thing regarded as a source of instruction or training.
(Education)
T.E. school, 2.

4. The body of persons that are or have been taught by a particular master (in philosophy, science, art) hence, a body or succession of persons who are disciples of the same master, or are united by a general similarity of methods or principles; also, a type or brand of doctrine or practice.
(Education)(Philosophy)(Art)
T.E. school, 3.

5. u.; Instruction given or acquired.
(Education)
T.E. schooling, education.

...

school, sku:| v.; tr.

1. to school oneself. (Rare)
 Train, control, discipline.
 (Teaching) (Resolution)
 T.E. disciplinarse, controlarse.

school-book, n.

schoolboy, n. 11% of 1352e

schoolgirl, n. 11% of 1352e

schooling, n.

schoolmaster, n.

schoolmistress, n.

schoolroom, n.

scholarism, n. (non-actual)

scholarly, n. (now rare)

scholarlike, adj.

scholarly, adj.

scholarship, n.

scholastic, adj.

scholastical, adj.

scholastically, adv.

escolaridad, n.

escolariego-a, adj. (non-actual)

escolarino, adj. (non-actual)

escolásticamente, adv.

escolástico-a, adj.

escolasticismo, n.

Bilateral School	Escuela adscripta
Boarding School	Escuela de Adultos
Comprehensive School	Escuela de Comercio
County School	Escuela del Estado
Direct-Grant School	Escuela Diferencial
Grammar School	Escuela Diurna
Grant-aided school	Escuela Industrial
Junior Secondary School	Escuela Nocturna
Multilateral School	Escuela Normal
Nursery School	Escuela Primaria
Preparatory School	Escuela Secundaria
Primary School	Escuela Subvencionada
Public School	
School for Handicapped Children	
Secondary School	
Secondary Modern School	
Secondary Technical School	
Senior Secondary School	
Technical School	
Voluntary School	

seminar, n. \longleftrightarrow seminario, n.
seminary, n.

seminar, 'semina: n.; c.

1. Small class at university for discussion and research; short intensive course of study.
(Teaching)(Learning)
T.E. seminario, 1.

seminary, 'seminari n.; c.

1. (Roman Catholic Church)
A school or college for training men for the priesthood.
(Religion)
T.E. seminario, 2.

seminario, 'seminarjo n.; c.; masc.

1. Small class at university for discussion and research; short intensive course of study.
(Teaching)(Learning)
T.E. seminar, 1.
2. (Roman Catholic Church)
A school or college for training men for the priesthood.
(Religion)
T.E. seminary, 1.
3. (Rare) (semillero, more common.)
A piece of ground in which plants are sown (or raised from cuttings, etc.) to be afterwards transplanted. (1)
(Botany)
T.E. seed-bed.

seminarist, n.

seminarian, n.

seminarista, n.

(1) cf. seed=semilla. Hence, figurative, a place or thing in which something (an art, science, vice, etc.) is developed or cultivated. e.g. semillero o seminario de vicios, pleitos, etc.

/x/ student, n. \longleftrightarrow estudiante, n. 33.

student, 'stju:dənt n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. Anyone who studies or who is devoted to the acquisition of knowledge.
(Education)(Knowledge)(Learning)
T.E. estu'dioso-a, estudiante, alumno-a.
(in secondary or higher education)
alumno-a.

2. A person who is undergoing study or instruction at a university or other place of higher education or technical training.
(Education)(Knowledge)(Learning)
T.E. estudiante, alumno-a.

studentship, n. (Rare)

studied, adj.

studiedly, adv.

studiedness, n.

studio, n.

/x/ studious, adj.

studiously, adv.

studiousness, n.

/x/ study, n.; v. 898e

estudiante, estu'djante n.; c.; masc./fem.

1. A person who is undergoing study or instruction at secondary or higher education.
(Education)(Knowledge)(Learning)
T.E. student, 1, 2.

estudiado-a, adj. 15

estudiantado, n. (1)

estudiantil, adj.

estudiantina, n.

estudiantino-a, adj. (non-actual)

estudiantón, n. (Pejorative)

estudiar, v. 126

estudio, n. 201

estudiosidad, n. (Rare)

estudioso-a, n.
estudiosamente, adv. (Rare)

/x/ subject, n. 1272e ↔ sujeto, n. 27

subject, 'sabdʒikt n.; c.

- 1. (Grammar)(Logic) That member of a proposition about which something is predicated, the noun or noun-equivalent with which the verb of a sentence is made to agree in number, etc. (1)
(Grammar)(Logic)
T.E. sujeto, 1.

- 2. (Philosophy) Thinking and feeling entity, the mind, the ego, the conscious self, as opposed to that which is external to the mind.
(Philosophy)
T.E. sujeto, 2.

- 3. masc./fem.
Person owing allegiance to a ruler or under the authority of the state.
(Subjection)
T.E. subdito, vasallo.

sujeto, suxeto n.; c.; masc.

- 1. (Grammar)(Logic) That member of a proposition about which something is predicated, the noun or noun-equivalent with which the verb of a sentence is made to agree in number, etc.
(Grammar)(Logic)
T.E. subject, 1.

- 2. (Philosophy) Thinking and feeling entity, the mind, the ego, the conscious self, as opposed to that which is external to the mind.
(Philosophy)
T.E. subject, 2.

(1) Notice that we have entered C.O.D.'s "traditional" definition of subject.

subject, (cont.)

4. neut. Matter (to be) treated, dealt with, studied, etc. Theme of a description, discussion, representation, study, etc. Topic.
(Topic)(Description)(Learning)
T.E. subject taught/learned: materia, 5;
in written and/or oral exams:
tema; topico, asunto, materia, 2,3.

sujeto, (cont.)

3. (1) Person. Frequently used when one does not want to mention or one does not know the name of the person concerned. Also very common in legal (criminal) language. In common usage "sujeto" is pejorative. (2)
(Mankind)
T.E. individual, fellow, character; party, subject, 7.

5. Circumstance that gives occasion for specific feeling or action.

(Circumstance)

T.E. asunto, ocasión.

6. (Medicine) Person or animal on whom an experiment is performed; corpse for dissection.

(Medicine)(Experiment)

T.E. cuerpo, cadaver.

...

(1) cf. Kany, Syntax, p. 6. He lists "sujeta" as common in Sp.Amer. We do not use it in our idiolect. The native informants we have consulted have agreed that only "sujeto" is used.

(2) cf. Reid, J.T., Hispania, XXI, (1948), p. 298.

D.R.A.E.'s entry: "Asunto o materia sobre que se habla o escribe (Moliner enters it as "poco usado")" has been omitted.

subject, (cont.)

7. masc. Person of specified usually
undesirable bodily or mental tendencies.
(Mankind)
T.E. sujeto, 3.

subject, adj. 17% of 1272e ↔ sujeto-a, adj. 27

- subject₁ to. 'sabdʒɪkt adj.
1. Liable or exposed to. Prone to
(Liability)
T.E. sujeto-a (a), 1; propenso-a,
expuesto-a.

sujeto-a, ₁ a. su'xeto

- adj.; post-noun pos.
1. Liable or exposed to. Prone to.
(Liability)
T.E. subject, 1; prone.

2. (1) Fastened, held tight(ly), firmly.
(Junction)
T.E. fastened, held tight(ly), firmly.

(1) Not entered in D.R.A.E.

subject, v. 9% of 1272e ↔ sujetar, v. 10.

subject, səb'dʒekt v.; tr.

1. Subdue, cause to submit.
(Subjection)
T.E. someter, subyugar, subordinar,
poner en estado de dependencia.

2. Cause to undergo; expose, make liable to.
(Subjection)(Liability)
T.E. exponer.

subjection, n.

subjective, adj.; n.

subjectively, adv.

subjectivism, n.

subjectivist, adj.; n.

subjectivity, n.

subjectless, adj.

subjectness, n.

sujetar, suxe'tar v.; tr.

1. To hold something or somebody firmly.
(Stability)
T.E. hold fast; hold down; fasten.

subjección, n.

subjetibilidad, n.

subjetivismo, n.

subjetivo-a, adj.

sujetador-a, adj.; n.

D.R.A.E.'s entry: "Someter a dominio o señorío o disposición de alguno" has been omitted.

supervise, v. \longleftrightarrow supervisor, v. (1)

supervise, 'sju:pəvaiz v.; tr.

1. Direct or watch with authority the work or proceedings or progress of.
(Direction)(Management)(Education)
T.E. (Amer.Sp.) supervisor; (Pen.Sp.)
dirigir, vigilar, inspeccionar.

supervisar, supervi'sar v.; tr.

1. Direct or watch with authority the work or proceedings or progress of.
(Direction)(Management)(Education)
T.E. supervise, l.

supervisor, n. \longleftrightarrow supervisor, -a, n.

supervisor, 'sju:pəvaizə n.; c; masc./fem.

1. Person who supervises.
(Direction)(Management)(Education)
T.E. (Amer.Sp.) supervisor-a; (Pen.Sp.)
director (de estudios), inspector.

supervisor-a, supervi'sor n.; c; masc.

1. Person who supervises.
(Direction)(Management)(Education)
T.E. supervisor.

...

(1) "supervisar", "supervisor-a" and "supervisión" are all Hispanic-American Anglicisms.

supervision, n. \longleftrightarrow supervisión, n.

supervision, ~~supervizer~~ n.; u.

1. Act of supervising.
(Direction)(Management)(Education)
T.E. (Amer.Sp.) supervision; (Pen.Sp.)
dirección, vigilancia, inspección.

supervisory, adj.

supervisión, ~~supervision~~ n.; u.; fem.

1. Act of supervising.
(Direction)(Management)(Education)
T.E. supervision.

Although "supervisor" and "supervisión" have deducible meanings they have been entered in full so as to point out the difference in usage between Amer. Sp. and Pen.Sp.

title, 'táitl

n.; c.

1. Distinguishing appellation placed at the head of chapter, poem, etc. (Nomenclature)(Topic)(Book, Periodical) T.E. título, 1

2. Formula at the head of legal document, statute, etc.; division of statute. (Nomenclature)(Topic)(Legality) T.E. título, 2.

3. Personal appellation, hereditary or not, denoting or implying office. (Title) T.E. título, 3.

4. (Law) Right of ownership of property, with or without possession; the facts constituting this. (Right) T.E. título, 4. (de propiedad)

título, 'titulo

n.; c.; masc.

1. Distinguishing appellation placed at the head of chapter, poem, etc. (Nomenclature)(Topic)(Book, Periodical) T.E. title, 1.

2. Formula at the head of legal document, statute, etc.; division of statute. (Nomenclature)(Topic)(Legality) T.E. title, 2.

3. Personal appellation, hereditary or not, denoting or implying office. (Title) T.E. title, 3.

4. -- de propiedad. (Law) Right of ownership of property, with or without possession; the facts constituting this. (Right) T.E. title, 4.

...

C.O.D.'s entries: "Fineness of gold as expressed in carats.; fixed sphere of work and source of income as condition to ordination.; District attached to parish church in Rome." have been omitted.

título, (cont.)

5. .. No tiene título para pedirme cuentas;
Le sobran títulos para...
Cause, reason, excuse, pretext, justification, merit.
(Motivation, Inducement)(Pretext)
(Justification)(Goodness)
T.E. cause, reason, excuse, pretext,
justification, merit.

6. Government's or private company's
documentary promise to pay borrowed
money.
(Securities)
T.E. bond.

7. Qualification, degree, etc. which
enables a person to take up post,
office, etc.
(Preparation)(Skill)
T.E. qualifications.

titulado-a, adj. 27

titular, adj.; n.

titular, v. 19

titulares, n. (1)

titularse, v.

titulillo, n. (Printing)

titulizado-a, adj. (non-actual)

titleless, adj.

titled, adj.

(1) cf. Morínigo: "Argentina, Paraguay, Uruguay. En los periódicos, encabezamiento de las noticias más importantes, que se da generalmente con letras de gran tamaño.

tutor, n.; v. \longleftrightarrow tutor-a, n.

tutor-a, tu'tor n.; c.; masc.
 1. (Legal) Guardian of a minor.
 (Protection)
 T.E. guardian; tutor, 1 (rare)

tutor, 'tju:tə n.; c.; masc./fem.
 1. (Legal)(Rare) Guardian of a minor.
 (Protection)
 T.E. tutor-a, 1.

2. a) Private teacher.

b) In most universities, a lecturer entrusted with the academic supervision of an undergraduate.

c) In Cambridge, a fellow of a college appointed to look after the discipline and social welfare of a certain number of undergraduates. (1)

(Education)(Teaching)

T.E. a) profesor particular; b) en la mayoría de las universidades de la Gran Bretaña, profesor a cargo de la supervisión de los estudios académicos de cierto número de estudiantes.; en la Universidad de Cambridge, persona que cuida del bienestar social de los estudiantes. Es asimismo responsable de la disciplina.

(1) cf. modern usage: Moral Tutor, In many universities, a person appointed to advise students on their social and personal problems.

All other D.R.A.E.'s entries have been omitted.

tutor, 'tjcto v.; tr.

1. To act the part of tutor (1, 2) towards.

(Protection)(Teaching.)

T.E. (tutor, 1) ejercer tutela sobre (una o un menor); 2 a) dar o dictar clases particulares.; b) en la mayoría de las universidades de la Gran Bretaña, supervisar los estudios de un cierto número de estudiantes.; c) en la universidad de Cambridge, cuidar de la disciplina y del bienestar social de los estudiantes.

2. (Rare) To tell (a person) what to do or say, especially a witness.
(Falseness)
T.E. aleccionar.

3. (Rare) Exercise restraint over (oneself, one's passions; another)
(Moderation)
T.E. disciplinar/se; controlar/se

tutorage, n.

tutress, n. (non-actual)

tutorial, adj.; n.

tutorially, adv.

tutorly, adj.

tutorship, n.

tutory, n.

tutoría, n.

tutriz, n. (non-actual)

university, ju:ni'və:siti n.; c.;

1. a) The whole body of teachers and students pursuing, at a particular place, the higher branches of learning.

(Education) (Knowledge)
T.E. universidad, l. a).

- b) Such persons associated together as a society or corporate body, having the power of conferring degrees and other privileges, and forming an institution for the promotion of education in the higher branches of learning.

(Association) (Education) (Knowledge)
T.E. universidad, l. b)

- c) The colleges, buildings, etc. belonging to such a body.

(Building) (Education) (Knowledge)
T.E. universidad, l. c)

universitarian, adj.

universidad, universi'da n.; c.; fem.

1. a) The whole body of teachers and students of a Public (state owned) institution, pursuing, at a particular place, the higher branches of learning.

Cult. Sem. Mark. (State owned, and maintained)
(Education) (Knowledge)
T.E. (state owned) universidad, (l. a.)

- b) The whole body of teachers and students of a privately owned institution, pursuing at a particular place, the higher branches of learning. Private universities cannot confer degrees unless recognised and authorised by the State.

Cult. Sem. Mark. (Privately owned but State controlled.)
T.E. privately owned but state controlled university (l. a.)

- c) The buildings, etc. belonging to such a body.

(Building) (Education) (Knowledge)
T.E. university, l. c)

universitario-a, adj.; 20; n.

LIST OF CONCEPTUAL FIELD SEMANTIC MARKERS.

- Accompaniment, 73; Abstract Relations, I.
 Accounts, 843 ; Volition, VII.
 Adult, 127 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Agent, 779 ; Volition, VII.
 Aid, 783 ; Volition, VII.
 Amusement, 876 ; Affections, VIII.
 Art, 572 ; Intellect, VI.
 Assemblage, 74 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Assent, 520 ; Intellect, VI.
 Association, 786 ; Volition, VII.
 Attention, 528 ; Intellect, VI.
 Authority, 737 ; Volition, VII.
- Beginning, 68 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Behaviour, 735 ; Volition, VII.
 Book, Periodical, 603 ; Intellect, VI.
 Botany, 411 ; Matter IV.
 Building, (See Abode, 191) ; Space, II.
 Business, 654 ; Volition VII
- Category, (Order in General, I); Abstract Relations, I.
 Celibacy, 932 ; Affections, VIII.
 Change, 139 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Choice, 635 ; Volition, VII.
 Circumscription, 233 ; Space, II.
 Circumstance, 8 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Classification, 61 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Clergy, 1036 ; Affections, VIII.

Combatant, 798 ; Volition, VII.
 Command, 750 ; Volition, VII.
 Commission, 778 ; Volition, VII.
 Confinement, 759 ; Volition, VII.
 Correspondence, 602 ; Intellect, VI.
 Courtesy, 934 ; Affections, VIII.

Degree, 29 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Departure, 300 ; Space, II.
 Deputy, 779 ; Volition, VII.
 Description, (See Speciality, 80) ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Direction, 289 ; Space, II and 745 ; Volition.
 Disapprobation, 967 ; Affections, VIII.
 Drama, 609 ; Intellect, VI.

Eating, 306 ; Space II.
 Education, c. ; Intellect, VI.
 Engraving, 576 ; Intellect, VI.
 Entrance, 301 ; Space, II.
 Evidence, Proof, 504 ; Intellect, VI.
 Excretion, 309 ; Space, II.
 Experiment, 488 ; Intellect, VII.

Falseness, 614 ; Intellect, VI.
 Fear, 889 ; Affections, VIII.
 Finance, 834 ; Volition, VII.

Giving, 816 ; Volition, VII.
 Goodness, 672 ; Volition, VII.
 Government, 739 ; Volition, VII.

Healing Arts, 686 ; Volition, VII.
 Hearing, 447 ; Sensation V.
 Heating, 328 ; Physics, III.

Importance, 670 ; Volition, VII.
 Inducement, 646 ; Volition, VII.
 Information, 555 ; Intellect, VI.
 Intellect, 465 ; Intellect, VI.
 Intelligibility, 546 ; Intellect, VI.
 Interpretation, 550 ; Intellect, VI.

junction, 47 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 justification, 1004 ; Affections, VIII.

Knowledge, 474 ; Intellect VI.

Law, (See legality, 996) ; Affections, VIII.
 Learning, 562 ; Intellect, VI.
 Legality, 996 ; Affections, VIII.
 Legislature, 740 ; Volition, VII.
 Liability, 174 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Liberation, 761 ; Volition, VII.
 List, 88 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Logic, (See Reasoning, 481) ; Intellect, VI.

Management, 745 ; Volition, VII.
 Mankind, 416 ; Matter, IV.
 Materiality, 375 ; Matter, IV.
 Medicine, (See Healing Arts, 686) ; Volition, VII.
 Memory, 535 ; Intellect, VI.
 Moderation, 162 ; Abstract Relations, I.
 Money, 833 ; Volition, VII.
 Motion, 266 ; Space, II.
 Motivation, Inducement, 646 ; Volition, VII.
 Musician, 463 ; Sensation, V.

Navigation, 274 ; Space, II.

Navy, (See Combatant, 798;) Volition VII.

Nomenclature, 581 ; Intellect, VI.

Obedience, 764 ; Volition, VII.

Occupation, 654 ; Volition, VII.

Permission, 775 ; Volition, VII.

Person in Authority, (See Authority and Control, IV) ; Volition, VII.

Philosophy, 499 ; Intellect, VI.

Plants, 410 ; Matter, IV.

Power, 156 ; Abstract Relations, I.

Presence, 185 ; Space, II.

Preservation, 699 ; Volition, VII.

Pretext, 647 ; Volition, VII.

Printing, 601 ; Intellect, VI.

Production, 166 ; Abstract Relations, I.

Protection, 697 ; Volition, VII.

Public Speaking, 597 ; Intellect, VI.

Pursuit, 653 ; Volition, VII.

Qualification, 506 ; Intellect, VI.

Reading, (See Interpretation, 550; Intellect, VI. and Vision, 438; Sensation, V.)

Record, 568 ; Intellect, VI.

Register, (See List, 88; Abstract Relations, I. and Record, 568; Intellect, VI)

Religion, 1018 ; Affections, VIII.

Remedy, 685 ; Volition, VII.

Resolution, 622 ; Volition, VII.

Right, 956 ; Affections, VIII.

Securities, 832 ; Volition, VII.

Silent Reading, (See Reading)

Skill, 731 ; Volition, VII.

Stability, 142 ; Abstract Relations, I.

Strength, 158 ; Abstract Relations, I.

Student, 564 ; Intellect, VI.

Subjection, 762 ; Volition, VII.

Superiority, 36 ; Abstract Relations, I.

Taking, 820 ; Volition, VII.

Teacher, 563 ; Intellect, VI.

Teaching, 560 ; Intellect, VI.

Therapy, 687 ; Abstract Relations, I.

Title, 915 ; Affections, VIII.

Topic, 483 ; Intellect, VI.

Training, (See Teaching)

Unchastity, 987 ; Affections, VIII.

Vision, 438 ; Sensation, V.

Writing, 600 ; Intellect, VI.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The main conclusions arrived at in this study are as follows:

1. The research work carried out to investigate the relevance of cognate lexical items in language teaching has proved that cognates constitute about 50% of the total number of lexical items which the students of either Porteño Spanish or British English will be exposed to.
2. Three factors are important when considering cognates in English and Spanish as a problem in language teaching, (a) Cognateness (understanding by this etymological cognateness in which borrowings are included), (b) similarity of graphic substance, and (c) meaning.
3. Lexical items in English and Spanish which are not historically related but which are similar in graphic substance are very few in number. This, together with the fact that if they are presented to the students in the environment of other items, within situations, they will not create misunderstandings, renders them of little importance in actual language teaching situations.
4. Two relatively new phenomena are becoming, by virtue of their increasing number, worthy of consideration in a study on cognates: (1) Lexicalized trade-marks, and (2) Acronyms.
5. When considering the meaning of cognates across languages

four factors must be taken into account:

- (a) The number of "readings" the cognate items may have.
- (b) Readings of Cognates may be classified into Congruent, Partially-Congruent and/or Incongruent.
- (c) Differences in the "culture" of the two languages communities are of great relevance for a dictionary of cognates. A method for the identification of these differences is by the comparison of lexical "fields" and/or "subsets" in the two languages and such differences must be specified in the dictionary by means of Cultural Semantic Markers and/or Conceptual Field Semantic Markers. The latter will bridge the gap between traditional dictionaries and conceptual dictionaries (Thesauri).
- (d) The consideration of paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of lexical items within the structures of the vocabularies concerned contribute to the specification of differences in their meanings.

6. A dictionary of cognates must contain:

- (a) Codified information about relevant syntactic features of each item.
- (b) Information about the pronunciation of the cognate lexical items
- (c) Semantic Information.

Thus, an entry in the dictionary must contain information from all the three components of ^atheory of linguistic description.

7. A dictionary of cognates must depart from:

- 1. The traditional bipartite division of bilingual dictionaries, i.e. it must be written (bar the exceptions noted in 8.2 above) in only one language.
- 2. By virtue of the inclusion of cultural features

translation equivalence in a dictionary of cognates abandons the word-for-word translation equivalence tradition of bilingual dictionaries.

8. The format of the dictionary must be such that it will allow for ready comparison of the readings of lexical items. The proposal put forward is that the readings of both the English and Spanish Cognate lexical items should be entered on the same page; the ordering of the readings to be based on "congruence".
9. The dictionary should contain an Introductory Section containing relevant information about the phonological and syntactic systems of English and Spanish.

The main conclusion is that the task of the lexicographer is not merely (as has been the traditional position) that of compilation but of investigation into the semantics, phonology and syntax of the languages concerned. Thus the requirements to be met by the lexicographer are competence in the two languages, ^{and} a knowledge of their lexical, syntactic and phonological structures, i.e. appropriate training in theoretical linguistics.

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